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December, 1941

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The Social Studies

Continuing The Historical Outlook

VOLUME XXXII, NUMBER 8

DECEMBER, 1941

Schools in a World at War

HOWARD G. SPALDING

Principal, High School, North Plainfield, New Jersey

This year we work in a world at war and in a nation driven by the urgency of war. Our factories are creating armaments at an ever-increasing rate. Our young men—many of them recently in our classes—are preparing for combat. Every citizen faces some measure of sacrifice. The whole power of America is being mobilized for defense of our democratic way of life.

Within our schools things may seem to be much as they have always been. Youngsters with the same characteristics and needs as those who preceded them fill our classes. Familiar subjects of instruction are listed on the schedule. The routine of the day's work is much the same as in former years. Teaching in a world at war may seem to be essentially the same as in a world at peace.

And therein lies the danger. Insulated as we are from the heat of the struggle, isolated as we tend to be from the stress of the preparedness effort, we may conclude that even in these critical times we need to do only as we always have done. But it would be a tragedy if we who teach should fail to do what we alone can do in this emergency.

We shall continue during the year to serve the social and cultural needs of our pupils. But beyond all else, ours is a service to the mind and spirit of youth. During the present crisis we can render our greatest service to our students and to the nation by strengthening the spirit of our youth, by elevating their ideals, and by clarifying their purposes.

Events abroad have made it clear that the strength

of a nation lies not in its wealth, nor its culture, nor the forms of its institutions, nor the vocational skill of its people, nor even in its armaments. These all have their importance. But the strength of a nation ultimately depends upon the spirit of its people, and especially of its young people, their understanding of common ideals and their devotion to them, their willingness to sacrifice for the common good, and their unity of purpose.

The magnificent example of the English people shows us that for a nation, as for an individual, the beginning of fortitude is the facing of reality. Our first duty is to help our pupils face the realities of their times in order that they may become acutely aware of the problems and perils that confront them. According to their age and understanding, we need to help them see and feel the stark realities of a world in which human life is cheap; hunger, cold, and fear, the common lot of millions; and social disorganization on a vast scale, a serious threat to the welfare of all mankind. We need to combat the callousness that dismisses with a shrug, the terrible tragedies of war and the indifference that views with unconcern the disasters of others so long as one's own personal fortunes are secure. We need to make clear to those we teach, the true significance of present events, which without our aid, students will view merely as a spectacle fortunately remote.

But it would be a disservice to our pupils if we aroused in them only an awareness of the problems of a world in chaos, and developed in them only a

desire to find solutions to these problems. We must also help them to understand, appreciate, and employ the only method that gives promise of success in dealing with these problems—the democratic method.

More thoroughly and more pointedly than we have ever done before, we must help our students understand the democratic ideals of respect for personality, tolerance, cooperation, freedom, equality, and the other tenets of the democratic creed. We must help them to study and to compare the achievements of the democracies in the things that make life worth while with the achievements of the totalitarian states in these respects. We must help them to vision what the world would be like in its international relations, its economic arrangements, its community relationships, and in the personal living of its citizens, if the methods of democracy were consistently employed in solving the problems of human relationships.

More than we have ever done in the past, we must train our students in the management of their own affairs in school and elsewhere by the methods of democracy. By the respect that we accord our students and by the example we provide, we must place before them a pattern of living which they will desire to adopt as their own. By our teaching and our example we must help them see that the democratic way is both rational and successful.

Every child and every youth is entitled to faith and hope, for these are the source of courage. For our own generation in the days when we were in school, faith and hope were easily attainable. But the world that our children know is not a world that, to the superficial view of young people, inspires either hope or confidence.

Yet grounds for hope and faith there are. We must help our students to recognize them and to accept them as a basis for their own personal outlook upon the future. History, well taught, will give an understanding of the slow but certain elevation of mankind and faith that this upward trend can be made to continue. Science, if it gets beyond formulae and theory,

will give grounds for faith in the limitless improvement of the material lot of mankind. Literature and the arts can reveal the highest achievements of the creative spirit and a study of the contemporary scene will reveal that creative men and women are still adding to the riches of the race. Experience in democratic living will reveal the possibilities for growth latent in ordinary individuals and will increase confidence in what common people can achieve.

These and many other grounds for hope and confidence can be found if we will but take the time to find them. But in the past our teaching has too often stopped short of considerations such as these. We must make it our business to build into the lives of our pupils the hopeful, confident outlook upon life that individuals need for stability and success and that a great nation requires of its citizens.

It is an arresting fact that the record of the schools during the First World War was one of great activity in support of Liberty Loan drives, in food production and conservation, and in other forms of direct participation in the war effort. There is little to indicate, however, that the school people of that time sensed the need for spiritual leadership that then existed.

Today the schools are better staffed, better equipped, and serve a larger portion of the public than they did a generation ago. The need is urgent for united effort on the part of all who teach to renew and to refine in our youth the best spirit of Americanism, to arouse in every student in our schools a concern for the future of the nation and a determination to serve the general welfare according to his talents.

We are, more than we sometimes realize, custodians of the public welfare. The present crisis requires that we should teach less for the private advantage of our pupils and more for the public good. The privilege of having a part—an important part—in the spiritual awakening of the youth of America is one that should send each of us to our daily work grateful that in a world at war ours is a constructive task.

Present-Minded or Past-Minded History?

SHERMAN B. BARNES

Department of History, Southern Illinois State Teachers College, Carbondale, Illinois

In the March, 1941, issue of *THE SOCIAL STUDIES* Professor F. K. Kruger advocated that no one should be admitted to courses in current events who lacks a basic general knowledge of history. He described the benefits of teaching current events when founded

on previous study of the past. It is the purpose of the present article, supplementing Professor Kruger's, to indicate some of the ways in which a conscious knowledge of history may function constructively as a force in present society.

Since there are many approaches to history, the types must be summarized and the one most likely to benefit a culture pointed out. For our purposes, there are two modes of approaching history. One is through what past generations did and believed, what mattered to them, and what consequences derived from their convictions and actions. Its purpose is to understand the past as it was in its own terms, atmosphere, and ways of thought. Another way of approaching history is through the eyes and convictions of the present. According to this second conception, the purpose of historical study is to understand the present. The ideas and institutions of today are taken as the standard of what to look for in the past. History then becomes a genetic study of the evolution of our present culture patterns. This type of history searches for the roots of present ideas and institutions.

Today, the study of history according to this second conception is very influential; it is often carried on uncriticized. It is carried on in many countries and I believe in four basic different ways. First, historical study of this type often enters into alliance with prevalent social philosophies.¹ It lends itself to the Nazi, fascist, Marxist, and all nationalistic efforts to justify their regimes or aspirations. History written and studied under the influence of liberal-democratic ideologies has presented history as a march of democracy, progress and reason. In other words, history was used as a metaphysical prop to sustain present aspirations. Second, present-minded history tends to enter into alliance with the view that since historical writing is subjectively colored by the presuppositions of the author, it is not possible to know the past as it was.² Third, present-minded history also coalesces with historical relativism, which may be defined as follows: the view that since each age has its own needs and problems, and that because what met the needs of one age has little relevance for another, past history has little to offer us in teaching how to meet our problems and needs. How the doctrine of historical relativism arose and the influence it has exerted deserves more study. It could probably be shown that the rise of empiricism influenced it, for under the sway of Lockean ideas the environment came to be seen as the moulder of men's minds. The consequent acceptance of the idea that human nature is flexible and malleable by reason and environment, lessened the interest in past history as a valuable teacher of the present; the sense of

history as *magister vitae* was lost.³ The interest in past history as a teacher of the present lessened when the differences between epochs and cultures were stressed.⁴ Fourth, present-minded history considers recent history to be more important than "remote" history.

If it be true that present-minded history is carried on in these four ways, then it is not the best type of history to function in the present, for it is history which merely tells us more about what, in a sense, we already know (the present)⁵ or serves to fortify us in the belief our aspirations are true and rooted in the processes of history and bound to be realized (e.g., Dialectical Materialism). It could be argued that such metaphysical support for aspirations is desirable. This is a large subject in its own account and cannot be considered fully here. Let it suffice to say that one of the major questions to face in debating the subject would be the adequacy of historical metaphysics to explain the fact that social philosophies like Marxism and Liberal-Democracy may break down (some think they already have) and not yield the fruits their protagonists expected. Another problem that would need exploring is why history is used rather than reason to justify the ideas which rule the present. Albert Schweitzer thinks the ideas which rule today "cannot be justified by reason; nothing is left for us but to give them foundations in history."⁶ Also, present-minded history is self-weakening for it is sceptical of its own knowledge and of the value of past history as a source of teaching applicable to the present. It thinks too often for its own good that "We learn from history that men learn nothing from history." Present-minded history, finally, errs in its logic when it uses the past to explain the present without making the past intelligible. To use the past to explain the present implies that the past is understood in terms of what was important to itself. Logically, past-minded his-

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tory is prerequisite to present-minded history.⁷

It is necessary now to see what can be said for past-minded history as a creative force in the present. Past-minded history seeks to know the past as it actually was, believes this objective knowledge is possible, however incomplete, prefers long-term and universal history to merely recent and national history, and resists alliance with present-day social philosophies. These contentions need explanation.

Every culture in a given era of its existence has a need of transcending itself, if it is to be dynamic and reshape its life constructively. To transcend itself means it must never make ends out of means or be complacent about its ways. It means to have the power of judging and finding wanting elements in the culture. It means uncritical acceptance (or rejection) of the values in one's own culture, past or present, may retard its growth. To grow, a culture must know itself. But to know itself there is need for a standard outside the processes of contemporary culture by which to judge their soundness and perchance reorient the directions they take. Standards for such judgments may be found in other times and cultures. Long-term history may help release men from unreasoning bondage to contemporary ideas, movements and fads, which may not necessarily be on the right track.⁸ Contemporary ideas may mislead us. W. G. Sumner once observed that the deepest bias from which the mind suffers is the shaping it is given by immediate experience. Franz Boas has called attention to the vast power over us of ideas commonly taken for granted. R. J. Hutchins says many clamor for the study of current events, but few call for the study of current *ideas*. The customs of an age tend to be taken for granted, as sound and inevitable, even by intellectuals, and even sciences come to be defined as "helping to do and get" the things (e.g., competitiveness) the culture believes in. R. S. Lynd, in his critique of the social sciences, *Knowledge for What?* complains that:

Social scientists are wont to stress the culture's special emphases as defining for them the significant, and to assume that this comprises the whole of the significant.

Julien Benda called "the treason of the intellectuals" the process by which intellectuals from Machiavelli to Arthur Rosenberg gave up supra-national for nationalistic norms under the pressure of nationalism. Many studies have called attention to the churches' tendency to make their peace with capitalism and nationalism.

⁷ See Henry Johnson, *An Introduction to the History of the Social Sciences* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932), pp. 124-125.

⁸ Lord Acton (1834-1902): "History compels us to fasten on abiding issues, and rescues us from the temporary and transient."

Where shall individuals obtain the spiritual and intellectual convictions whereby to judge their culture? Of course, there is no one source. Until recently individuals derived from their sense of God "an inner defense" for their individual convictions held in spite of social disapproval. Bertrand Russell describes the man of today, influenced by subjectivity and pragmatism, as deprived of not only God, but also of the Good, the True and the Beautiful:

A certain degress of isolation both in space and time is essential to generate the independence required for the most important work; there must be something which is felt to be of more importance than the admiration of the contemporary crowd.⁹

Cannot the study of long-term history be a means of providing individuals with standards by which, in isolation, to take the measure of the culture in which they live? But only past-minded, not present-minded, history can provide the dynamic. The conceit that wisdom begins with our time must be, and is being, overcome. The modern urge to experiment, referred to in the following quotation, may come to be combined with wisdom drawn from past-minded study of history:

I have found that modern man has an ineradicable aversion for traditional opinions and inherited truths. He . . . wants to experiment in the world of the spirit as the Bolshevik experiments with economics . . . the modern man . . . wants to live with every side of himself—to know what he is. That is why he casts history aside. He wants to break with tradition so that he can experiment with his life and determine what value and meaning things have in themselves, apart from traditional presuppositions.¹⁰

Past-minded history makes careful study of "traditional presuppositions" seeking to know and feel them from within.

There are four advantages in a long-term, past-minded study of history. First, it may give, as has already been said, escape from unconscious acceptance of present conceptions. Second, the study of the rise and fall of civilizations through all the centuries for which there are records shows us human experience in more complete form, with causes and effects more likely to be grasped, than would result from a study of the fragment of history we call current history. This is admitted, for example, by the sociologist R. S. Lynd:

⁹ "On Being Modern-Minded," *The Nation*, January 9, 1937.

¹⁰ Carl C. Jung, *Modern Man in Search of a Soul* (London: K. Paul, Trench, Trubner and Company, 1933), pp. 267, 275-276.

. . . emphases upon the significant within any single culture are a less sure guide for social sciences than generalizations derived broadly from the behaviour of persons in all cultures.¹¹

Lynd's appeal to social scientists to assert values and become more than merely descriptive in their work raises the question whether values can be made to step forth inductively from historical experience. The great barrier in the way is the doctrine of historical relativism. There is one historian whose works should be carefully examined from the standpoint of whether they tend to give evidence against the doctrine of historical relativism. This historian is Arnold Toynbee. In his *A Study of History*, six volumes of which have appeared, there is a wealth of data on comparative civilizations from which to form values inductively. According to him, in the last 5,000 years five civilizations were born and arrested, and twenty-one civilizations have gone on growing after birth; of these twenty-one twenty have broken down. To him "the problem of the breakdown of civilizations is more obvious than the problem of their growth." (P. A. Sorokin calls him "the undertaker of civilizations.") He finds militarism is the commonest cause of breakdowns. He also makes a startling correlation to the effect that the geographical expansion or the ingenuity in technical inventions of a civilization are usually connected with a declining stage of a civilization. Throughout his six volumes runs the theory that civilizations are given physical and moral challenges. Their survival depends on how they respond to the moral challenge.

There is a third advantage of long-term, past-minded history. It consists in the fact that a longer view of history may give a basis for escaping excessive pessimism or undue optimism which may develop in a culture. The pre-1914 era in western civilization was unduly optimistic over its science and democracy; since 1914 the pendulum has swung the other way. A broader view of history than study of current history is needed to counteract the pessimistic

views to which a study of history since 1914 might give rise:

Too narrow a view of the strife and struggle of conflicting forces of the day may tempt one to conclude that the world is on the downward path. A broader view gives greater hope for the future.¹²

Toynbee's history at first makes one think that the long view might also cause pessimism. But in Toynbee there is a theory that the deaths of civilizations are not brought about by cosmic forces outside human control; the true causes are within human beings. The very way in which civilizations crash releases seeds of new civilized creativeness. Toynbee's volumes also contain evidence concerning how often knowledge of the past as a revealer of values has been a creative force in the present. Probably the best known example of this is the Renaissance era in Western civilization which cried: "Back to the sources of Truth and Inspiration in Classical Antiquity."

A fourth advantage of long-term, past-minded history is that it openly recognizes the fact that the meaning of contemporary history escapes the actors in it. It approves Jung's statement that:

Every period has its bias, its particular prejudice and its psychic ailment. . . . It is always dangerous to speak of one's own times, because what is at stake in the present is too vast for comprehension.¹³

RECAPITULATION

In discussing the problem of how conscious historical knowledge can be a creative force within a culture the distinction was made between present-minded and past-minded history. It was argued that present-minded history is less likely to be helpful to a culture's power of self-criticism and renewal than past-minded history.

¹² F. R. Fairchild, E. S. Furniss, and N. S. Buck, *Elementary Economics* (New Haven, Conn., 1924), p. 56.

¹³ *Modern Man in Search of a Soul*, pp. 191-192; also, a similar view in Stefan Zweig: ". . . an epoch never knows itself and does not know the true direction of its spirit."

¹¹ *Knowledge for What?* (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1939), p. 191.

Revised Historical Viewpoints

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HOOSIER WET LANDS

Prejudice against the large southern element in Indiana before 1860 does not account for the failure of New York, New England and foreign migrants to occupy Hoosierland in the early days of the last

century. The Census of 1860 reveals that these people passed over Indiana in favor of Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Missouri and Iowa. Why? Northern Indiana was a wet swampy region and its poor drainage precluded not only farming but the

good roads so essential for migration and settlement.¹

Various sources indicate that this was so. General Harrison as a result of his 1812 campaigns observed that the country north of forty degree latitude (Columbus and Dayton regions) was almost continued swamps to the Lakes. Newspapers and books of the times described Indiana as wet and swampy, while travelers in general deplored the lack of good roads. Poor drainage was due to a tough tenacious clay soil and to so-called "summit levels" which were said to account for wet lands common on almost all dividing ridges. Semple and Jones writing in 1933 declared that northern Ohio, Indiana and Illinois were cut off from the influx of population coming from Lake Erie because of swamps covering the uncertain watershed of the Maumee, Wabash and St. Joseph Rivers. A map of the Census Bureau (1932) by its portrayal of its cooperative drainage projects indicates the poor drainage of this region.

THE SICK POOR IN COLONIAL TIMES

America long has been known as the land of milk and honey. Despite cyclic depressions prosperity has been considered so traditional that our people were long indifferent if not hostile to State and National social legislation. Poverty and its attendant ills of sickness and infirmity have too often been considered a social problem arising from the industrialization of colonial America. However, the problem of public care for dependent classes was present from the very early days of the colonies.

Albert Deutsch calls attention to the fact that the provision in colonial America for the sick poor was primarily a problem of poor relief.² As early as 1642, if not earlier, the towns and provincial legislatures passed laws for the care of the sick poor. A crop failure or unemployment might lead to destitution, which was apt to generate sickness. Disease could devour the modest resources of a colonist and result in destitution. Mr. Deutsch's researches are purely descriptive; he does not attempt an enumeration of the sick poor from which one might draw conclusions as to the extent of poverty.

Methods of public relief varied in form. At first relief was purely a local affair, though at times the provincial legislature granted aid. Since parish or town relief was the prevailing rule, it became the custom to provide care for known residents only. Strangers were often "warned out" of town. Special regulations to prevent one community imposing on another were passed, making each community re-

sponsible only for its own sick poor. Quite often the law required the home community of a sick migrant to reimburse a town which cared for a stranger whose condition forbade return travel. At times a humane spirit on the part of a town or some of its leading citizens led to financial care of, and responsibility for, some sick migrant despite prevailing practices such as "warning out."

Provision for medical care was conditioned by the available resources. Trained physicians were few. The clergy often performed medical services as did many lay practitioners.

Institutional care was rare throughout the seventeenth century. Probably the first guesthouse to be established was at Jamestown in 1662. The only true hospitals prior to the Pennsylvania Hospital (1751), were lazarettos and military hospitals.

The sick poor received material aid or medical care in their own homes or were boarded out at public expense at or near a physician's home, or with neighbors. The latter, called "boarding round the town," was the most common method.

Financial aid was unsystematic depending on individual cases. Towns assumed care for those impoverished through long illness and often paid lump-sum payments to persons to care for a sick patient indefinitely. In Virginia, parishes often gambled with the physician, providing that payment for services only be made in case of cure. On occasion the patients were bound out in servitude to their physician as payment for service. A Pennsylvania law of 1782 bound out to servitude, upon recovery, those dependents whose illness was due to "drunkenness or other lewd practice." The sick poor were often generously treated on occasion being sent to health resorts (springs) or transported elsewhere for other special care at public expense.

Physicians were often granted tax exemption in return for public health service to the poor. Dr. Daniel Stone in 1671 became Boston's first official medical ministrant to the poor, being paid twenty shillings a year in addition to tax exemption.

Colonial legislatures often granted financial relief to towns or allowed them to raise the poor rates after serious epidemics in order to care for widowed mothers or orphaned children. Inoculation against smallpox, espoused by Cotton Mather, won increasing acceptance after 1721 and led to the spread of inoculation hospitals throughout America.

Public almshouses were founded in Philadelphia in 1732, New York in 1736, Charleston in 1736 and Boston in 1739. These almshouses were modeled on the Elizabethan Poor Law of 1601 and housed in the one institution all types of public dependents: the sick, aged or infirmed poor; able-bodied unemployed poor, those willing to work and those unwilling to do so.

¹ Richard L. Power, "Wet Lands and the Hoosier Stereotype," *Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, XXII (June 1935), 33-48.

² Albert Deutsch, "The Sick Poor in Colonial Times," *American Historical Review* XLVI (April 1941), 560-579.

The Pennsylvania legislature in 1751 voted £2,000 for a public hospital for the sick poor and insane on the condition that private citizens subscribe a like amount. This was done chiefly through the efforts of Franklin. In 1769 Virginia established the first pub-

lic hospital for the mentally ill.

In addition to this public relief many private religious groups offered medical service and care. About 1800 private philanthropy replaced government responsibility in the provision for the sick poor.

Democratic Techniques in Motivating Active Responsibility

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SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

With a background of fifteen year's teaching and civic participation in community life, the writer developed a few functional, vitalized, and creative activities and projects in his 1940-1941 classes in civics. The objectives, techniques, and results of these are briefly described here.

In this time of crisis and defense of democracy, objectives such as the following seem timely in progressive and meaningful classes which are effective in a democracy:

- (1) To encourage and stimulate greater participation in the home, school, and community.
- (2) To further in the civics class more orderly, courteous and constructive discussion and activity on controversial questions, contemporary news, and in democratic endeavors.
- (3) To develop leadership and followership in extracurricular type of club programs, projects, and civic undertakings.
- (4) To measure objectively such progress and participation in democratic situations.
- (5) To point up class organization, instruction, and activities, democratically and cooperatively in a broad, civic sense.

UNIQUE TECHNIQUES

The writer and his students wrote suggestive class rules for controlled and constructive activity in the classroom, stressing especially democratic situations. Mimeographed rules, self-tests ("Do You Do's" in home, school, and community), civic responsibility certificate requirements, objectives of a democracy, and reference material were provided as a point of departure.

Some of the unique, progressive, and democratic techniques used to motivate active responsibility and participation in democratic situations were:

- (1) An extracurricular type of club activity program meeting once a week or more usually on Mon-

day on school time during the regular class period. There are no requirements, dues, or after school meetings except for special officers, groups and committees for special purposes. *Every-student participation* is the aim of at least one meeting a month. The class and club officers are elected solely by the students after campaigning. A carefully worked-out program is prepared by the teacher and approved by the officers who use it as a guide to the club and class activity. Committees assist as needed. Vice presidents in charge of citizenship, news, and program alternate with the president in handling meetings. Activity scrapbooks are kept and class newspapers are issued once a month or quarter. Industrial and civic trips are planned and taken once or twice a semester. Typical programs consist of patriotic numbers, entertainment feature, panel or news discussion, debate or dramatization, news broadcast, an appropriate film, "Professor Quiz" contest, extemporaneous talks, or combined program with another class. Class creeds, seals, and designs are placed with posters and notices on bulletins, boards, etc. Current student publications are used by students. Conferences are held by officers and the teacher to plan and devise new approaches.

- (2) Informal, socialized teaching techniques are used in class development, discussion, and testing. Activity is stimulated as well as participation and discussion on the part of the students under the careful guidance of the teacher. Text and news tests are often devised and given by student committees or individuals under teacher guidance. Homework is often set aside for newspaper reading or a club program over the week-end. Quite often, a news group or class row handles the news discussion, individual students acting as chairmen of the discussions. Panel discussions and student-led questions are often developed in the units. Case study development tends to clinch causes, results, and remedies. Directed study periods and reasonable, functional homework, if any, receive current application and concrete illustration.

Vocabulary development and techniques are basic to lesson development. "What Democracy Means to Me," "Free Schools, the Hope of American Democracy," and "How They Maintain American Democracy" have been developed by means of films, panels, and a demonstrated lesson given before the Parent-Teachers Association. Stenographed reports of *Junior Review* news discussions were made this year. Student-written and approved "Habits of Common Courtesy and Decency in Democratic Situations," "Class Creeds," "Civic Responsibilities," and other related activities and suggestions were completed this year and followed. In any case, the teacher is guiding and if necessary directing the activity development as to planning and sometimes execution.

(3) A Civic Responsibility Certificate was constructed and multigraphed for presentation each semester during the year. Students must show evidence at the end of the semester that they have participated in a courteous, controlled, and constructive manner in the home, school, community, and the civics class. Civic diaries proved too difficult and tedious. Mimeographed "Civic Participation Records" also tended to be too involved. The teacher and the officers decided to have students who desired to do so hand in statements from parents, one teacher other than the writer, and two or three community leaders such as scoutmasters, Sunday School teachers, "Y" secretaries, or businessmen. Such statements should be definite as to the student's participation and service in the group to which he belongs and in which he should participate and advance. These were handed in at the end of ten weeks and are to be handed in finally at the end of the semester in order for students to qualify or re-qualify for the certificates. No habitual disturber or leaner who has shown no self-improvement will be granted a certificate by the teacher and officers. "Honor Citizen" is initialed by the teacher if the class elects the student as one of the ten most valued citizens to the civics class during the semester. "Leadership" is marked if the student has displayed leadership in the class and community. "Self-Improvement" is checked if the student shows such improvement or needs to do so. "Civic Achievement" is initialed if the student attains creditable records in class, school, and community. Student responses and comment on the civic certificate and projects were favorable. Over eighty per cent qualified and felt that they had known where they were going and what they had done for democracy. No ceremony was held in the certificate presentation. The officers and teacher signed and rated or marked the certificates together, preventing any favoritism. The teacher gave a talk on the meaning of the civics seal and the necessity of everyone working helpfully and positively in a democracy. Failures as well as successes had to be shared. Speaking well

of the teacher, officers, club and class was very essential and basic. The certificate was an indication that the student who received it was a citizen who had furnished evidence in the class and community that he had been an active and helpful citizen in the groups to which he belonged.

(4) The teacher himself participated in the community and motivated many others to do the same. Quite a large number of students became more active; others started in civic participation. Book presentation was made more alive by application to the lives of students and teacher. Such controversial questions as "Third Term," "The Strike Situation," "Food To Conquered Nations," etc. were developed between classes as well as in the "Civics in Action" club.

(5) The spirit of the class development and activity was that of democratic participation in planning and execution. The teacher was a guide but insisted on passing upon and many times motivating successful techniques. In fact such techniques require just that—teachers who handle the situation and gain participation, cooperation, and loyalty. The conferences with individual and small groups of officers will get the work done. Students are likely to confuse freedom of speech and action with license unless carefully brought up to helpful service and activity. Teachers and officers should carefully plan and execute worthwhile activities and projects.

RESULTS

Briefly, the results were the achievement of the objectives of the techniques mentioned at the beginning of this article. Students discovered that they were citizens and as such have rights and responsibilities. The extracurricular type of club with no requirements as to qualifications, grades, dues, and after-school meetings secured greater participation and civic service within and without the school. Officers and teacher learned that participation must be secured within one's ability and interest—everyone shouldn't be forced to give a talk or debate, although extemporaneous talking at times was encouraged in the "Civics in Action" club as a sort of play or recreational sort of program. Quiz and contest programs tended to get students in a participating mode and motivated them to greater action. Sharing was developed and constructive suggestions and criticism were helpful. "Pitching" was made fundamental. If one contributed and helped he was in a position to suggest. The certificate and more definite materials as to program and activity stimulated greater service and participation. The writer feels that such an award, while subject to criticism if abused, gets results for the large number who may not get a chance for such a recognition or for an activity irrespective of qualifications or time or status. Students are cautioned that they must bring honor and

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credit to their teacher, class, club, school, and community. That is all the certificate costs—service in a democracy.

In conclusion, the writer would like to stress that this is a chance for participation in democratic situations, progressive teaching, and activity programs. However, the teacher makes no point that this is democracy. He is in control and intends to be—this is not a children's world yet. There are times when some degree of authority may have to be used in the classroom to advance the students to where we want them. A semester or so should move them in that direction. Majority opinion and approval and disapproval of the group are fundamental. Students will follow their leaders if they feel that they are fair and that they are giving them a chance to express themselves and have a hand in their activities. As teachers, we should give in to our youngsters' requests as to homework, lessons, activities—even if it may not be our best judgment at times. They must feel that they are sharing and having a part in their work, discus-

sions, etc. or such a project will fail. Much of our teaching has tended too much toward dictatorship. Do your students express themselves freely? Do you dominate? Do you share ideas and practices and achieve worthwhile things together? Do you change your teaching each year and move out toward better things? List a few achievements of your students in democratic pursuits for which you are directly or indirectly responsible. Have the students do the same thing. A small group conference with your students at least once a week will net results of great importance in terms of greater progress in a democratic way of approaching our teaching. Have your students ever determined in some way any changes in your techniques? If not, you have the answer to your weakness in democratic techniques. Can you take *their* constructive criticism or suggestion? If not, you tend to be a dictator still and your techniques are subject to question. Can you take it too? This is a good question as a start in considering democratic techniques which tend to further democracy in today's world.

A Unit on Pan-American History

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AND

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"Courses in American history and geography, standard educational pabulum, might well include somewhat less emphasis upon the Spanish explorers and conquistadores and more emphasis upon the modern development of our South American neighbors."¹ Concomitant with this attitude expressed by Dr. Studebaker are the attempts that are being made in our schools to foster a knowledge and understanding of our neighbors to the North and to the South. Much of the ground to be covered is virgin soil, so far as material available in our high schools is concerned. While the collection of such information is being augmented, the study of Pan-America need not be neglected but rather employed as an aid to the gathering of pertinent facts.

A unit on Pan-American history gives wide opportunities for the use of library tools. The average small school has not yet collected many volumes in this field. Therefore, the classes will lean heavily upon the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* as a key to magazine articles. The librarian can assist students in making and using a bibliography and in locating sources of pamphlet material. Excellent

bibliographies are found in two recent supplements to the *Booklist*, obtainable from the American Library Association, 520 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago, at twenty-five cents each. One is *Canada*; the other is *Latin America, Books for North American Readers*. The bibliography accompanying the following unit is not exhaustive but is made up of the general references available in our library. Each student was required to choose a country upon which to report and made his own bibliography for that country.

UNIT

Objectives

1. To develop an understanding of the leading facts in the modern history (since 1700) of the Pan-American countries.
2. To develop an understanding of the background and of the recent trends in Pan-American relations.
3. To develop an understanding of current political and economical problems.
4. To develop a knowledge of eminent men in Pan-America.

¹ Editorial, *School Life*, XXVI (February 1940), 291.

5. To develop increased skill in the use of library tools in making a bibliography.

Requirements

1. Each student must select one Pan-American country, Canada, Caribbean Islands or a country in Central or South America and present a written report and an oral résumé of that report.
2. The report must include the following topics:
 - a. The settlers in 1700.
 - b. How independence was achieved.
 - c. Men prominent in achieving independence.
 - d. Leading government changes from 1800 to the present.
 - e. Imports and exports to and from the United States.
 - f. Relations with other Pan-American nations since 1900.
 - g. Type of present population.
 - h. Present government.
3. Begin the study about 1700.
4. An outline of your report must be handed in on _____.
5. The written report must be presented by _____.
6. You will be expected to know (from the oral reports of other students) about each country:
 - a. Its participation in the Pan-American Union.
 - b. Its imports and exports to United States.
 - c. Its present political leanings.
7. A bibliography must accompany each report.
8. Each student must present five subject cards for the social studies file.
9. *Special credit work*
(For "B" do one; for "A" do three.)
 - a. Draw a political map of the country on which you are reporting.
 - b. Draw an economic map of the country on which you are reporting.
 - c. Draw a graph showing the total imports and exports between one country and the United States.
 - d. Write a biography of at least 500 words on Boliver, Christophe, San Martin, Toussaint L'Ouverture, or Juarez. (All students will be required to know who these men were.)

- e. Read and present an oral report on one of the following:

Covelle Newcomb, *Black Fire*.
 W. H. Hudson, *Green Mansions*.
 Thornton Wilder, *The Bridge of San Luis Rey*.
 Richard Gill, *Manga*.
 Charles Finger, *Tales from Silver Lands*.
 Charles Finger, *A Dog at His Heels*.
 Alida Malkus, *Dark Star of Itza*.
 B. Harding, *Phantom Crown*.

10. Test

New-type covering class reports. One discussion question on the student's own report.

Sources for Free Material

Consuls of various countries. See *World Almanac* for addresses.

Coordination of Commercial and Cultural Relations between the American Republics, Commerce Building, Washington, D.C.

Travel Bureaus: Pan-American Union, Washington, D.C.

Helps for Teachers: The American School of the Air, *Teachers' Manual*, 1940-41, Columbia Broadcasting System, New York City.

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Geographic Games and Tests

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The October, 1941, number of THE SOCIAL STUDIES contained the first of a series of geographic games and tests planned for courses in geography, history and the social studies in general. The series will be continued throughout the year.

The difficulty of the games may be increased

by omitting the answers found at the bottom of some of them by putting a time limit on the completion of them, or by assigning them simply for study. There will be about 100 games in the entire series so that there is provided a wide range from which selection to fit particular needs may be made.

G 29. FROM FARM TO FACTORY

In the spaces provided below name a *definite* agricultural product of the U.S., which is used as a raw material in the manufacture of the article named.

<i>Manufactured Article</i>	<i>Raw Material</i>	<i>Manufactured Article</i>	<i>Raw Material</i>
1. Breakfast Food	_____	26. Ham	_____
2. Cloth	_____	27. Pepsin	_____
3. Alcohol	_____	28. Tennis strings	_____
4. Paper	_____	29. Cigars	_____
5. Starch	_____	30. Sausage	_____
6. Syrup	_____	31. Butter	_____
7. Pipes	_____	32. Shoes	_____
8. Brooms	_____	33. Sauerkraut	_____
9. Paint	_____	34. Glue	_____
10. Jam	_____	35. Buttons	_____
11. Sugar	_____	36. Veal	_____
12. Lard	_____	37. Cider	_____
13. Knife handles	_____	38. Twine	_____
14. Oleomargarine	_____	39. Soap	_____
15. Ice Cream	_____	40. Cheese	_____
16. Chamois	_____	41. Wax	_____
17. Bacon	_____	42. Beer	_____
18. Fur coats	_____	43. Flour	_____
19. Paint brushes	_____	44. Vegetable oils	_____
20. Fertilizers	_____	45. Honey	_____
21. Mutton	_____	46. Hominy	_____
22. Candles	_____	47. Combs	_____
23. Gelatin	_____	48. Oil cloth	_____
24. Bran	_____	49. Varnish	_____
25. Vinegar	_____	50. Catsup	_____

G 30. AMERICAN INDUSTRIES THAT NEED EACH OTHER

The prosperity of many of our industries is largely dependent upon certain others. Thus, the rubber factories are busy when the automobile trade is good. The manufacture of nitrogen fertilizer requires much cheap power, so it is closely related to abundant coal or waterpower. Below are listed many pairs of great industries. Explain how those in each pair are related to each other.

- | | | |
|------------------|-----------------|-------|
| 1. copper | electrical | _____ |
| 2. iron ore | coal | _____ |
| 3. cement | waterpower | _____ |
| 4. glass | coal | _____ |
| 5. lead | buildings | _____ |
| 6. aluminum | waterpower | _____ |
| 7. nickel | automobiles | _____ |
| 8. cement | automobiles | _____ |
| 9. paper | waterpower | _____ |
| 10. shipbuilding | steel | _____ |
| 11. leather | boots and shoes | _____ |
| 12. automobile | steel | _____ |
| 13. tin plate | canning | _____ |
| 14. petroleum | steel | _____ |
| 15. linseed oil | paints | _____ |
| 16. timber | paper | _____ |
| 17. coal | steel | _____ |
| 18. sulphur | fertilizer | _____ |
| 19. petroleum | automobiles | _____ |
| 20. glass | beverages | _____ |

G 31. SOME AMERICAN CROPS AND ANIMALS

Insert the names of crops and animals described. Each name has as many letters as there are dashes provided.

FINDING THE NAMES OF SOME CROPS

— — —	1	2	— — —
— — — —	3	4	— — — —
— — — — —	5	6	— — — — —
— — — — —	7	8	— — — — —
— — — — —	9	10	— — — — —
— — — — —	11	12	— — — — —
— — — — —	13	14	— — — — —
— — — — —	15	16	— — — — —

1. Livestock food, cut, dried and stacked for winter use.
2. A grain often used for making a dark bread.
3. A favorite cereal for horse feed (plural).
4. The most valuable crop of the nation.
5. America's chief bread grain.
6. A favorite on the table, used either green or dried (plural).
7. Vegetable fiber crop our chief export crop.
8. The most important fruit grown in the U.S. (plural).
9. A popular fruit, but very sensitive to frost (plural).
10. A member of the corn family popular with the children.
11. Legume brought from the Orient. Illinois is the leading state producer.
12. Food for man in America; for both man and livestock in Europe.
13. Plant grown for the broom industry.
14. People love to eat it "on the cob."
15. Has a huge blossom and is grown for its seed (plural).
16. A favorite breakfast melon (plural).

FINDING THE NAMES OF SOME DOMESTIC ANIMALS AND USEFUL INSECTS

— — — —	1	2	— — — —
— — — — —	3	4	— — — — —
— — — — —	5	6	— — — — —

1. Gathers the product of many flowers to make a favorite sweet (plural).
2. Form in which most American corn is marketed.
3. Furnishes meat, leather and textile fiber.
4. A beast of burden, inclined to be stubborn at times (plural).
5. Our most popular draft animal (plural).
6. Important source of meat and dairy products.

G 32. AMERICAN RAW MATERIAL REGIONS AND MANUFACTURING CENTERS

The places named in column 1 produce or ship a raw material, manufactured parts, or fuel which find a large market in the region named opposite, in column 2. In column 3 name the raw material, in column 4 name the manufactured products. Number 1 is filled out.

<i>Raw Material Source</i>	<i>Manufacturing Center</i>	<i>Raw Material</i>	<i>Manufactured Article</i>
1. Cotton Belt	Fall River	Raw cotton	Cotton cloth
2. Akron	Detroit	_____	_____
3. Corn Belt	Chicago	_____	_____
4. Northern Minn.	Pittsburgh Dis't.	_____	_____
5. Red River Valley	Minneapolis	_____	_____
6. Great Plains	Omaha	_____	_____
7. Grand Banks	Boston	_____	_____
B. Belt of Hardwoods	Grand Rapids, Mich.	_____	_____
9. North Dakota	Battle Creek	_____	_____
10. Pittsburgh Dis't.	Duluth, Minn.	_____	_____
11. Montana	Philadelphia	_____	_____
12. Columbia River	Portland	_____	_____
13. Northern Minnesota	Gary	_____	_____
14. Pittsburgh Dis't.	Detroit	_____	_____
15. Texas-Oklahoma	Whiting, Ind.	_____	_____
16. Chesapeake Bay	Baltimore	_____	_____
17. Arkansas	Niagara Falls	_____	_____
18. Pittsburgh Dis't.	Moline	_____	_____
19. Southeastern, Wis.	Chicago	_____	_____
20. North Carolina	Durham	_____	_____

The Town Meeting: Agency for Cooperation

RALPH ADAMS BROWN

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America's Town Meeting of the Air, which for several years has been recognized as one of the country's outstanding agencies for the strengthening and safeguarding of our democracy, is now being accepted as of real significance in citizenship education. It is, however, more than an agency for the training of better citizens. It is a solution to two problems, one of which has been bothering social studies teachers for a long time, while the other is a problem that at least *should* bother the teacher of the present.

The first problem is that of integration. All social studies teachers recognize the desirability of integrating their work with that of other teachers. Unfortunately, recognizing the need for such integration and being able to actually do it, are two different things. With the exception of those who teach in experimental or small private schools—with their flexible curriculum and small classes—most instructors of the social studies find it almost impossible to carry out any real integration with English, or art, or music or any other of the subjects where interrelation of subject matter makes such a practice desirable.

The second problem for which Town Meeting offers a solution, one not yet widely recognized even though increasingly important, is that of "too much homework." Irate parents are beginning to be vocal, as witness the article by a high school student's mother in the March, 1941, issue of *Progressive Education* entitled: "My Enemy . . . the School." Of course it is true that only a small proportion of high school students do too much studying. (And almost any teacher will tell you of the many who seem to do *none*.) The fact seems undisputable, however, that in most public high schools the conscientious student, who is striving for high grades, does more mental work than is either necessary or—from the health standpoint—desirable. It is the thesis of this article that where integration between the social studies department and others is impossible, or impracticable, the answer is *cooperation*, and that one very effective agency for such cooperation is America's Town Meeting of the Air.

The American history teacher, for example, in most public high schools will find it impossible to combine classes with the American literature teacher and work together on certain units—as is done in many private and experimental schools. Yet he *can*,

if he tries, find various ways of *cooperating* with the literature teacher, thus gaining at least some of the advantages of close integration, and at the same time cutting down the amount of homework without in any way diminishing the value and completeness of the instruction. The same possibilities for *cooperation*—with the same beneficial results in the offing—are open to the teacher of *any* subject.

The Town Meeting broadcast, both because it is such an important program from the standpoint of our struggle to preserve our democratic way of life, and because it can be advantageously used by so many different teachers in so many different ways, is one of the best means for such cooperation. Let us establish a few model ways in which this can be done.

Eighth Grade: The English teacher and the social studies teacher both assign their students to listen to the Town Meeting broadcast (shall we say it is on the topic: "What Kind of a Peace Should Follow this War?"). The English teacher has her class list all words whose meaning is not known to them. The social studies teacher asks for a summary of the arguments. On Friday, the day after the broadcast, the English class has a vocabulary drill, based on the words in the several lists made the night before; the social studies class discusses the program and argues the various proposals presented. For extra-credit work—or special assignments to gifted pupils—the English teacher may resort to a written report, or an essay based on the program; the social studies teacher may assign some reports on earlier peace treaties and the reasons for their failure.

Ninth Grade: Again the English and social studies teachers assign their students to listen to the broadcast. The former has a series of oral reports on the program, with written reports for extra-credit work; the latter has his class conduct an open forum on the topic, with student chairman and discussion leaders.

Twelfth Grade: The English, social studies and speech teachers all assign the broadcast to their classes. The former asks for short essays on the topic, to be passed in within a week, and has a brief discussion of the program in class. The social studies teacher may have a forum, a formal debate, a miniature Town Meeting, or any one of a dozen or more possible procedures. The speech teacher calls for an oral discussion of the various speech techniques used by the speakers, with comments both on their strong

and weak points.

Possible procedures for three classes, in both junior and senior high schools, should prove the practicality of America's Town Meeting of the Air as an *agency for cooperation*. Every one of the suggested uses has been practiced in an actual classroom situation, and reported upon with favorable enthusiasm to Town Hall's "Advisory Service." Many of them, in fact, have been reported by several teachers in different sections of the country. But, they have

not been used by several teachers of the same pupils—by different departments in the same school. Until this is done—until Town Meeting is used as an agency for cooperation—teachers in our junior and senior high schools are missing a chance to gain some of the advantages of integration, and reduce the amount of unnecessary homework, at the same time that they are helping to make democracy stronger by training future citizens to be more effective workers for the democratic way of life.

The Fate of the Non-Essential Industries

JEANNETTE FEHNER

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Twenty-five years ago Germany staked her life on a throw of the dice—and lost. Today, we find Germany again at her favorite game, but it can hardly be said that she is as yet fighting a losing battle. Why is this? Solely, because Hitler knows what war phenomenon means; he knows that wars cannot be won today by military strength alone, but by the total mobilization of the nation's powers—intellectual, moral, and industrial. Modern warfare is no longer only a battle between armed forces, but is rather a struggle between individuals and the material resources at their command. It is interesting to note that seven years ago, Hitler and his military attaché adopted a plan patterned after the American Industrial Mobilization Plan of 1921, which is the framework for Nazi warfare. Evidently, we have known the significance of war since the First World War, but we have been slow. We must try to do in two years what Hitler did in seven, and for the second time in history, United States business finds itself facing the imminent necessity for complete industrial mobilization.

All manufacturers, whether engaged in war or non-war industries must comply to the commands of present plans. Needless to say, the immediate future of the essential industries in this crisis is quite secure, insofar as they are more than busy on government orders. But what about the fate of the non-essential industries—those industries which do not directly affect the military status of the nation? Since most of the material resources which they use, and the labor they employ, are vital for war orders, they are also subject to industrial mobilization plans. There are only two courses which they may pursue: either convert production to war needs, if it is possible; or curtail their production, under government orders, and suffer losses.

If it is possible to convert easily a non-war industry into an essential one, the government will order that

it be done under its own supervision. This method was carried out to a large extent during the First World War, as the following shows:

Kitchen stove plants turned to making hand grenades and trench bombs.

Furniture plants turned to making ammunition boxes.

Shirt factories turned to making mosquito netting.

Gear plants turned to making gun sights.

Wooden-toy plants turned to making packing cases.

Horseshoe makers turned to making trenchpicks.

Piano factories turned to making fuselages and wings of airplanes.¹

Under the present plan of priorities, these manufactures of non-war commodities and others are again being converted to essential industries along lines parallel to those followed during the First World War. So, turning to a fictionalized future, or to the present, as in many cases now, we find an industry, perhaps manufacturing garden tools and mechanical toys, being instructed to begin shifting their production into war channels. The government will probably command this industry to produce barbed wire, or trench-digging tools, made of material obtained from the government. The government would, of course, pay the employers, but not on a cost-plus basis; the employer would have to adjust his costs to conform to the price set in Washington.

A glance at the daily newspapers verifies these facts, when we read that the Office of Production Management is curtailing automobile production to save steel and to make use of more of the plant machinery for defense purposes. Automobile manufacturers, therefore, are shifting production to war

¹ James L. Tyson, "The War Industries Board—1917-1918," *Fortune*; (Supplement), September 1940, p. 8.

lines by supplying parts and motors to airplane shops and trucks to the army. Another typical example, although slight in its significance, is the cosmetic manufacturer, who, to avoid a sharp decrease in sales, now makes "beauty" kits for the men in service which include such things as hand lotions, foot powders, etc. Again, we find the nylon industries conserving their resources and labor for the production of parachutes instead of silk stockings. Legally, these priority orders governing the production of civilian commodities are possibly no more than requests, but actually, they have all the force and vigor of a full command.

These priority orders, however, affect not only those non-essential industries capable to transforming into essential lines, but unfortunately, they may also affect the non-essential industries, which can in no way be converted to necessary uses and which shall be referred to here as purely non-war industries. A War Industries Board Committee during the First World War reported that there were only twenty-five classes of purely non-war industries worthy of consideration for complete elimination. But, the committee reached the conclusion that it would be inadvisable, for psychological reasons, to eliminate such industries to accomplish its purpose of complete industrial mobilization. The War Industries Board, therefore, proceeded to curtail the production of these industries by applying the principles of priority for material resources, fuel, transportation, and labor. Every manufacturer of non-war commodities felt the effects of the reduction.

Their models were standardized or in some cases prohibited altogether from sale. The standardization of colors, together with certain restrictions in style and sizes of sweaters released thirty-three per cent of the wool ordinarily used in that industry. Again, discarding the use of tinfoil and tin boxes as containers of typewriter ribbons saved tons of precious steel and pig iron; the elimination of bicycle designs saved 2,265 more tons of steel for defense purposes.²

Then cheaper constituents were necessitated, because the essential materials were needed for war production. Through research, magnesium and the cheaper metals were used in place of steel for civilian commodities. Synthetic rubber, nylon, resins, plastics, fibre glass, and neon lighting—all substitutes which were created for the emergency in 1917—still remain with us, for they have proved their worth far more than did the traditional materials, again needed in the defense program.

During the First World War, the experienced labor of these purely non-war industries were unquestionably taken for military service or placed in essential industries. All the nation's barbers, waiters, elevator operators, bus drivers, salesmen, and em-

ployees of industries manufacturing edibles, wearing apparel, and house furnishings were all subject to this ruling. In their stead, the government placed older persons, or those with slight physical disabilities. If any non-war industry refused to obey government priority wishes, the government simply discontinued its existence for the duration of the war.

Since these methods proved so successful as to save an undetermined amount of essential materials, it is plausible to conclude that the government should now proceed along similar lines. Priorities have already been established on aluminum which means a reduced output of aluminum kitchenware and calls for substitutes for many types of articles. Aluminum is so vital in the defense program for airships, warship superstructures, and torpedo boats, that priority proclamations have even been made on aluminum scrap, which has been recently selling at thirty-eight cents a pound, while virgin metal of top grade is going at seventeen cents.³ This only means that non-essential industries manufacturing such metal products must stand at the end of the aluminum bread line, grateful for favors received. It is understood that aluminum will be available to these industries for civilian products in 1942, but the quantities will still not be sufficiently large to boost production to normal.

The drive for aluminum pots and pans labels the kitchen as the room hardest hit by the defense program's gobbling of metals and other materials used to make domestic articles. The housewife even now discovers that her washing machine, refrigerator, vacuum cleaner, and roaster must do for a while longer. She is more than conscious that the toaster stock is very low because of the shortage of nickle-plated wire for heating units; that stainless steel implements will now be made of a lower and cheaper quality steel; and that all metal fixtures, cabinets, and clocks will be substituted by wood and plastics. Her spices and linoleum must also be sacrificed since prices are zooming high and the commodities are disappearing from the markets. Indeed, the defense raids are already raising havoc in American kitchens.

Simultaneous with the priority order of the Office of Production Management covering aluminum scrap, there came another of the expected priority rulings on zinc and tin. Tin cans, now, will have less tin, and galvanized pails will contain less zinc. Priority orders on tin have affected the chewing-gum manufacturers, since the government has asked them to use cellulose material with which to wrap their gum. It is also rumored that white-wall tires must go because the labor is needed far more for the manufacturing of truck tires.

Every phase of our normal civilian life, it seems, is being translated into activity necessary for our na-

² *Ibid.*, p. 8.

³ Editorial, *Newsweek*, June 9, 1941, p. 17.

tional defense. It must be agreed that the non-essential industries must bear the brunt in this crisis. Surely, the fate of these is tragic; but our industrial mobilization can never be complete without such

curtailment. Since complete industrial mobilization is a most vital factor in warfare, we must conclude that the welfare of the whole is greater than the welfare of one or more of its parts.

The Turner Thesis: Criticisms and Defense

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It has been said, repeatedly, that Frederick Jackson Turner received the impetus for his work from Herbert B. Adams at Johns Hopkins University under whose direction he had pursued his graduate work in history. The impetus was of a negative sort. Adams had put forth the "germ theory" of politics which placed America under the influence of European origins. His point of view and that of his contemporaries placed American development in a merely incidental relationship to European development. "Economic and social foundations were slighted; geographic factors, largely ignored. American history was a barren waste already sufficiently explored."¹

In response to this point of view, with which he did not agree, Turner wrote his doctor's dissertation not only on a topic that was strictly an American topic but also on one that was western in its emphasis rather than eastern.² With this beginning he became the great exponent of the importance of the West in American history and even intimated that it was also important to Europe. This was something of a reversal of the traditional explanation of American development. Having left Johns Hopkins "in an unsanctified state" he went forth to a career of teaching, writing, and speaking which was out of harmony with the "germ theory."

As early as 1844, Emerson had suggested the Americanizing influence of the West and numerous other writers approached the same idea before Turner enunciated his doctrine in *The American Historical Association Report* in 1893. Macaulay mentioned the relationship of democracy and the abundance of land in the United States in a letter written in 1857. E. L. Godkin, editor of the *Nation*, had discovered "frontier life" as one of the distinguishing features of American society by 1865. In 1889 a reviewer of Roosevelt's *Winning of the West* recommended further emphasis on the westward movement to future historians. In the same year James Bryce averred that the West was the "most American part

of America" and A. W. Harris is said to have most nearly anticipated Turner in an article entitled "What the Government is Doing for the Farmer," which appeared in *Century Magazine*, July, 1892.³ Despite all these "precursors" Turner was to become the modern Arius of American historians.

As compared with other historians as well-known as himself, Turner did not turn out a prodigious amount of written work. His writings consisted of *The Rise of the New West*, a history of the United States from 1820 to 1830, published in 1906; *The Frontier in American History*, 1920; and *The Significance of Sections in American History*, 1932, which were published before he died. After his death an unfinished work under the title *The United States, 1830-1850; The Nation and Its Sections* was published in 1935. He wrote some thirty essays and general articles, many of which were republished in *The Frontier in American History* and in *The Significance of Sections in American History*.

In spite of the relative paucity of his published material he had a far-reaching effect on subsequent historical writing and thought in America. He induced his colleagues "to shift from the work of the antiquarian or pamphleteer, and to seek, if not 'Law in History,' at least evidence that would tend to make more plausible the connection of cause and consequence."⁴

The Turner hypothesis has been set forth with varying degrees of completeness by many of his "attackers" and "defenders." It might be summed up briefly by saying that the experience of the westward moving people on the successive frontiers has had a unique effect on the development of American democracy.

The uniqueness of the American experience on the frontiers was set forth in his "The Significance of the Frontier in American History" and was reiterated in other and later publications. The Turner thesis was proclaimed in broader terms by Avery

¹ W. T. Hutchinson (Ed.), *The Marcus W. Jernegan Essays in American Historiography* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1937), p. 253.

² *The Character and Influence of the Indian Trade in Wisconsin* (Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1891).

³ Hermon Clarence Nixon, "Precursors of Turner in the Interpretation of the American Frontier," *The South Atlantic Quarterly*, XXVIII (January, 1929), 83-89.

⁴ F. L. Paxson, "A Generation of the Frontier Hypothesis," *The Pacific Historical Review*, II (March, 1933), 35-36.

Craven as follows:

The basic idea developed . . . was that American history, through most of its course, presents a series of recurring social evolutions in diverse geographic areas as a people advance to colonize a continent. The chief characteristic is expansion; the chief peculiarity of institutions, constant readjustment. The areas successively occupied differed in the beginning as greatly from each other in physical make-up and resources as did those in Europe which were separated by national lines. They were all wilderness in character, and each in turn represented "the hinter edge of free land." Into these raw and differing areas men and institutions and ideas poured from older basins, there to return to a more or less primitive state and then to climb slowly back toward complexity along lines fixed by the new environment, the old pattern imported, and the accidents of separate evolution. The process was similar in each case, with some common results but always with "essential differences" due to time and place. The final result, as area after area was occupied from the Atlantic to the Pacific, was the Americanization of both men and institutions in the sense that they were better adjusted to their environments and had altered their original character.⁵

Louis M. Hacker who is numbered among the "anti-Turner" group has put it more briefly. He states the Turner thesis as: (1) the uniqueness of American historical experience occasioned by settlement on a series of frontiers which affected the forms of American institutions and colored the national psychology; and (2) the appearance and continuity of sectional differences due to peculiar physiographic, economic, and demographic conditions.⁶

Perhaps it was the all-inclusiveness of Turner's remark that: "The existence of an area of free land, its continuous recession, and the advance of American settlement westward, explain American development";⁷ . . . which has caused so much comment, pro and con, as to his thesis. Or perhaps it was because he was too definite in assigning American development to practical causes and divorcing it from European origins. At least he apparently became most vulnerable when he bared his chest by saying:

American democracy was born of no theorist's dream; it was not carried in the *Susan Constant* to Virginia; nor in the *Mayflower* to Plymouth.

It came out of the American forest and it gained new strength each time it touched a new frontier. Not the constitution, but free land and an abundance of natural resources open to a fit people, made the democratic type of society in America for three centuries while it occupied its empire.⁸

It was undoubtedly such expressions as this that led John C. Almack to attribute some of the faith in the frontier doctrine to its "unusually happy phrasing."⁹

At any rate Turner began the practice of writing interpretive history which differed from the older historiography which was "descriptive, emotional, hortatory, and pragmatic or pedagogical," according to Joseph Schafer.¹⁰ Schafer characterized, by way of example, the non-interpretive works of George Bancroft as expressing "liberty triumphant" for its theme; Francis Parkman's works as being romance and drama; and George Tucker's as having shown our nation's course to have been "pacific, liberal, and just" towards its neighbors.¹¹

Then came Turner. . . . In the rhythmic beat of the Indian's paddle, the songs of the *voyageurs* on the opposite flowing rivers, he seems to have sensed the systole and diastole of the historical process as conditioned by America's unique frontiers.¹²

Perhaps it was inevitable that the Turner thesis should eventually be called into question, both by men of eminence who did not fully agree with his doctrine, and by lesser men who saw an opportunity for self-publicity in attacking his thesis. Men of eminence, such as F. L. Paxson appear most conservative in calling the "frontier hypothesis" into question.

John C. Almack was one of the earliest to disagree with the thesis.¹³ He accused Turner and his pupils of having "devoted more time to substantiating the theory by repetition than to testing its truth"; and of giving it "force and power through the sympathetic imagination of its author." When he charged the theory with being "nothing more than a diluted type of Marxian determinism,"¹⁴ he drew upon himself the charge of injustice by Turner's most sympathetic defender, Joseph Schafer.¹⁵ No one has ap-

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 293.

⁶ "The Shibboleth of the Frontier," *The Historical Outlook*, XVI (May, 1925), 197.

⁷ "Turner's Frontier Philosophy," *The Wisconsin Magazine of History*, XVI (June 1933), 453.

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 453.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 456.

¹⁰ "The Shibboleth of the Frontier," *The Historical Outlook*, XVI (May, 1925), 198.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 197-202.

¹² "Turner's America," *Wisconsin Magazine of History*, XVII (June, 1934), 459-460.

¹³ W. T. Hutchinson (Ed.), *The Marcus W. Jernean Essays in American Historiography*, pp. 254-255.

¹⁴ "Frederick Jackson Turner: Non-Economic Historian," *The New Republic*, LXXXIII (June 5, 1935), 108.

¹⁵ F. J. Turner, *The Frontier in American History* (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1920).

peared to attempt a refutation of Almack's charges beyond this. Perhaps this was due to the apparent weakness of the attack. It was difficult to determine just what Almack was attacking and one is left with a feeling that his arguments have insufficient bearing on the frontier hypothesis which he set about to annihilate. Some statistics were given from a study by Henry Cabot Lodge to show that the western states contributed relatively few leaders in American history. Figures were given to show that eastern states were more important agriculturally than the western and William Warren Sweet's *The Rise of Methodism in the Far West* was quoted as evidence that the moral standard of new areas was often below that of the older settled communities. He sensed that the Turner school had attributed "an uncanny sagacity to the frontier" as concerns political progress and gave as evidence to the contrary, the alleged fact that the West had been consistently wrong on political issues:

The "traits of the camp-meeting" were not conducive to straight thinking. Especially has frontier intuition failed when confronted with economic issues. Jefferson democracy dealt the hardest blow American enterprise ever suffered in its financial policy. The Jeffersonian embargo killed all commercial enterprise. Rotation in office, championed by the frontier, ushered in an orgy of financial and political despoilation. The populist movement has its inception in the fallacious doctrine of Karl Marx. Greenbackism, free silver, and non-partisanism have each in turn deluded the frontiersman, ignorant alike of economic principles and racial experience.

Almack cited the origin of the initiative and referendum in Switzerland and the borrowing of provisions of the eastern state constitutions for those of the West as evidence that the frontier did not make as many innovations in government as was supposed and quoted Ross's *Social Psychology* to show that in this back country "clannishness, patriarchal authority, herb-doctors, hell-fire doctrine, dread of witchcraft, and belief in the flatness of the earth" survived. He concluded that the frontier was not the place, therefore, where the "inventiveness, resourcefulness, . . . new activities, new lines of growth, and new institutions," described by Turner might be found.

As for the uniqueness of the American frontier he said that all people had had frontiers and gave Russia as an example. Paris, on the other hand, far removed from the frontier "has long been the stronghold of European democracy" and "the self-governing cantons of Switzerland have been occupied for many centuries. These examples are his evidence that frontier conditions deter progress and that they do

not accelerate it."¹⁶

Louis M. Hacker appeared to take the greatest pleasure in attacking the Turner thesis. In reviewing *The Significance of Sections in American History*, in 1933, he took the occasion to say that Turner and his school of thought had made themselves so influential that "the patient and obscure toiling of another long generation of American historical scholars will be required to destroy his influence: for Turner and his followers were the fabricators of a tradition which is not only fictitious but also to a very large extent positively harmful."¹⁷

Hacker purported to find a disparity in Turner's statement on the one hand that: "The significant fact is that sectional self-consciousness and sensitiveness is likely to be increased as time goes on and crystallized sections feel the full influence of their geographic peculiarities, their special interests, and their developed ideals, in a closed and static nation"; and on the other hand his declaration that: "Economic interests are sectionalized."

Turner was taken severely to task for the "perverted reading" he "gave to American history in his insistence upon the uniqueness of American experience and his emphasis upon sectional development as a sort of flywheel to balance all political, social, and economic disparities." This emphasis, according to Hacker, served to turn the American people away from their true perspective which should have emphasized class antagonisms, monopolistic capitalism, and imperialism. The parallelism between American and European history could better have been developed. Turner should not have "cut himself loose from the currents of European thought" and should have listened more attentively to his teachers at Johns Hopkins who insisted on the continuity of history and the inheritance of institutions instead of turning to the fur trade in Wisconsin. He should have gone along, said Mr. Hacker, with H. D. Lloyd who published his *Wealth Against Commonwealth*, in 1890, and A. T. Mahan who published his *The United States Looking Outward*, in the same year.¹⁸ (One might be permitted to pause here to observe that these publications had the same opportunity to be read and to influence public opinion as had Turner's publications.)

Hacker did not agree that the existence of free lands made possible the creation of Turner's unique "American spirit"—that indefinable something that was to set the United States apart from European experiences for all time." He attributed their importance to their production of commodities with

¹⁶ "The Shibboleth of the Frontier," *The Historical Outlook*, XVI (May, 1925), 201-202.

¹⁷ Louis M. Hacker, "Sections—or Classes," *The Nation*, CXXXVII (July 26, 1933), 108.

¹⁸ *Ibid.* p. 109.

(Continued on page 363)

ILLUSTRATED SECTION

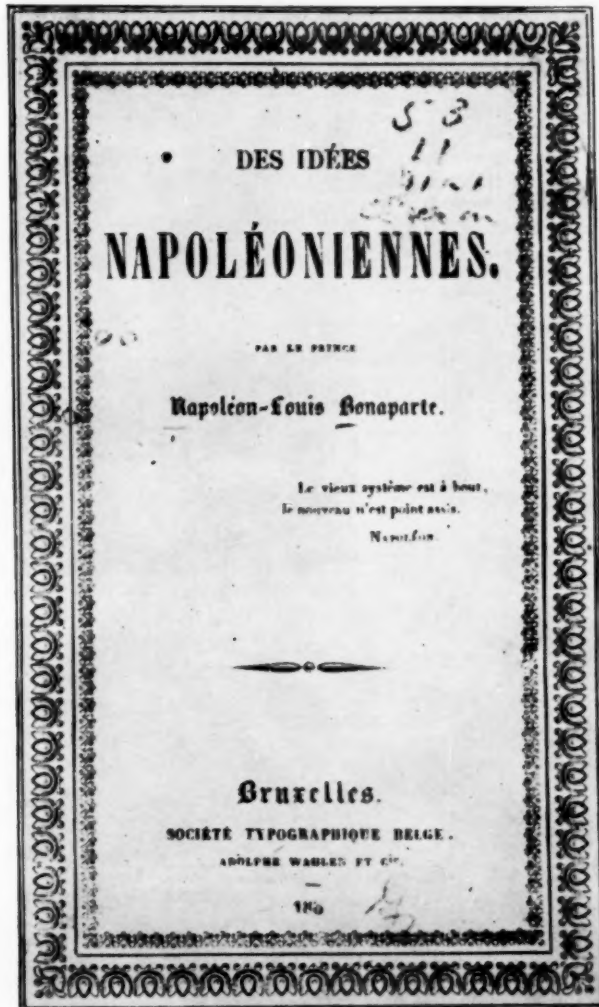
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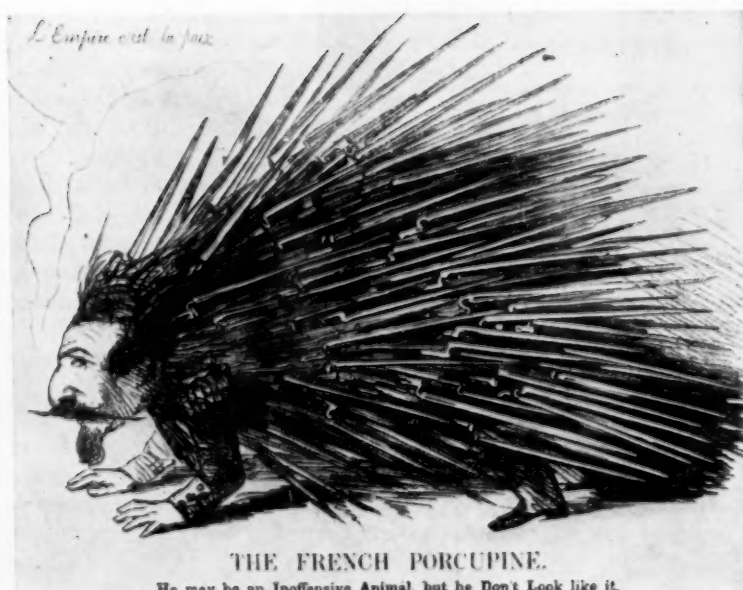
THE SECOND NAPOLEONIC EMPIRE



The cover and title page of the pamphlet, *Napoleonic Ideas*, published by Prince Napoleon in Brussels in 1839 (exact size). Its 190 pages set forth the program which the third Napoleon proposed to follow which he insisted represented the plans of his uncle. On the cover he quotes the first Napoleon as saying, "The old system is ended. The new is not yet established." This bid for support was followed the next year by the return of Napoleon I's ashes from St. Helena to be buried in a magnificent tomb in the Hôtel des Invalides. In the words of a great historian, the Prince Napoleon acted later on "exactly in accord with what he wrote here."

THE SECOND NAPOLEONIC EMPIRE

Hundreds of cartoons were levelled at the third Napoleon by his French subjects. All his doings were held up to ridicule. "A Visit to the Exposition," a full-page cartoon by Charles Vernier appeared in the well-known French magazine, *Le Charivari*, February 12, 1851. The French President is represented as saying, "Aha! it seems that the first Consul wore a hat with more feathers than mine. It will be necessary for me to have one made like it . . . if I am granted my one million eight hundred thousand francs" (the income granted by the State to the President). On December 2 of this same year by a coup d'état he paved the way for the establishment of the Second Empire.



Besides the attacks at home, he was also a subject for ridicule abroad. The famous English cartoonist, John Leech, of the staff of *Punch* reminds his readers of Napoleon's words at Bordeaux on September 20, 1852, "The Empire means peace." This cartoon appeared in March, 1859, on the eve of the Austro-Sardinian War. The famous French cartoonist, Honoré Daumier, reminded his fellow Frenchmen of this same pronouncement in a cartoon with this title published during the Franco-Prussian War (1870). The preparation of the *Punch* cartoon is described as follows: "Every moment was precious and Leech proposed the idea for the cartoon, drew it in two hours, and caught his midday train on the following day, speeding away into the country with John Tenniel for their usual Saturday hunt."

THE SECOND NAPOLEONIC EMPIRE



This cartoon probably appeared in *Fliegende Blätter*, a German magazine. Its title is "The Restless One." Napoleon III is represented as having just finished with the Italian project of 1859. His hand rests on the completed manuscript, "Kingdom of Italy recognized. L. N." "That's as good as finished" are his words. "What shall we do next?" His admiration for Julius Caesar had led him to write his biography.

The "Sick Woman of Mexico," by Bellew, appeared in *Harper's Weekly* on February 8, 1862, apropos of the Mexican situation. Spain, England, and France were acting jointly at this time in trying to obtain public satisfaction for the public debt repudiated by Benito Juárez. In April, 1862, financial adjustments were made satisfactory to Spain and Great Britain and their forces were withdrawn, but the French remained. That same autumn Napoleon despatched to Mexico an army of 30,000 veterans,



THE SECOND NAPOLEONIC EMPIRE



The Emperor at Solferino was painted by Ernest Meissonier (1813-91), named by Napoleon III the historical painter of the first and the second empire. His "Friedland 1807" and "1814" are well-known works. His pupils, Edward Detaille and Alfred de Neuville stand at the top of French historical painting.



The building of the Suez Canal presented the third Napoleon with an opportunity for furthering the plans of the first Napoleon for a firmer foothold in Egypt. Here is a view by a visiting French artist of one of the events associated with the inauguration of the Suez Canal. It is a drawing by M. Darjou done for *Le Monde Illustré* and appearing in its issue of December 19, 1869, with the title, "Inauguration of the Suez Canal: promenade of the Empress and her suite in the outskirts of Ismailia." The Empress Eugenie was in Egypt at the invitation of the Khedive, and a French correspondent (in addition to the artist) sent back regular reports of the festivities accompanying the opening of the canal to commerce. These were in November 1869.

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which the United States could balance its international payments and then borrow European money for her own industrial enterprise. The western lands were termed a "catpaw" for industry, the presence of which drained off the spirited elements of the laboring class and prevented it from maintaining a continuous revolutionary tradition.¹⁹

Again, in 1935, Hacker had an opportunity to express his opposition to the Turner concept in reviewing the posthumous publication of the latter entitled *The United States, 1830-1850*.²⁰ Here the objection seemed to be not only to the Turner hypothesis but also to misplaced emphasis on "uninspired recitals of so-called cultural and social developments: to the anti-liquor agitation, the peace movement, public education, the spread of learning, the influence of the press, as well as to the personalities and vagaries of almost every obscure politician who mounted a rostrum." He deplored the use of Turner's "blunted tools" and the continued "dishing up" of the "uniqueness of American experience and the frontier dream."²¹

Benjamin F. Wright, Jr., attacked the Turner thesis in 1930. He concerned himself with the "European origins" idea and lent agreement to the Johns Hopkins' school of thought of Herbert B. Adam's time. He said:

Perhaps the greatest short-coming of this frontier interpretation of our national development is its tendency to isolate the growth of American democracy from the general course of Western Civilization. The proper point of departure for the discussion of the rise of democracy in the United States is not the American West but the European background. The extent to which the early colonies in this country reflected the stage of development in their respective mother countries is especially significant. Consider first, England and the English colonies. Feudalism had been virtually extinct in England for many generations before the founding of New England. Representative government had been in the process of development for at least three centuries. The middle class had risen to a position of independence and power in the economic life of the country and was beginning to exercise a large share of influence in things social and political. The Protestant Reformation, one of the greatest factors in the growth of modern democracy, was so far advanced that a large portion of the English and Scottish settlers were already dissenters from dissenters. In the English colonies

there were, with some temporary and relatively unimportant exceptions, almost no traces of feudalism, and independent landholdings became the rule throughout most of the colonies. Representative government was almost immediately established in every colony. Brownism, Puritanism, Quakerism and Presbyterianism, with their relatively decentralized and democratic forms of organization, were the religions of a large portion of the colonists. With the striking exception of slavery, an institution virtually dead in the mother country, a great deal more than the bare beginnings of what we call democracy was planted in all of the English colonies in America.²²

Wright's contention was that the basic principles of democracy *did* come over in the *Susan Constant* to Virginia and in the *Mayflower* to Plymouth and that the frontier communities did not exist long enough to influence existing institutions appreciably. The policies and practices adopted and followed were, for the most part, those which originated in Europe and were brought over as the only understanding the settler could have had concerning affairs in the new environment. After deferring to the conditions which inevitably exist in frontier communities and which would undoubtedly give color to the character of the institutions set up in the new environment, Wright said that this was not enough to explain their ultimate character. For example it was asserted that:

The frontier does not afford an adequate explanation for the system of independent landholdings in the English colonies, the early development of representative government in Virginia, the New England town meeting, the tolerant democracy of Rhode Island, or Penn's liberal plans for the government and economic organization of his colony, any more than it accounts for the Canadian seigniorial system, the great Mexican feudal estates, or the patroonships along the Hudson.²³

This article took further exception to the idea of the importance of the frontier by attempting to show that the Revolutionary War in America was mostly the result of the initiative and activity of the eastern, settled area and that in North Carolina and Georgia the backwoodsmen were even Loyalists. Turner's statement that Jefferson was a product of the frontier and that his gospel was influenced by the West needed, it was said, considerable qualification in the light of Jefferson's many and close eastern and Euro-

¹⁹ *Ibid.* p. 110.

²⁰ Louis M. Hacker, "Fredrick Jackson Turner: Non-Economic Historian," *The New Republic*, LXXXIII (June 5, 1935), 108.

²¹ *Ibid.* p. 108.

²² Benjamin F. Wright, Jr. "American Democracy and the Frontier," *The Yale Review* (New Series), XX (December, 1930), 350-351.

²³ *Ibid.* pp. 353-354.

pean associations. The democratic revolution which produced Andrew Jackson was dismissed as a part of a democratic movement closely related to that in Europe in which the Western states played a small part inasmuch as the election of Jackson could not have been accomplished without the votes of "the small farmers, the mechanics, and many of the wealthy political leaders in the older States."²⁴

The most conservative questioning of the doctrine "that in the open frontier, 'the higher edge of free land' is to be found the greatest formative influence in the making of our history" was made by F. L. Paxson in 1933.²⁵ He considered it necessary after a generation of the Turner hypothesis to consider whether it was "still plausible enough to continue for another generation to be accepted as our chart."

In Paxson's article the Turner *significance* was summed up as "composite race and Americanization, democracy, social recreation in the light of frontier experience, and nationality." In regard to the composite race the Americanization concept, Paxson said that there were, when Turner wrote, "forces in operation that were inconsistent with any complete amalgamation." The Bennet Law in Wisconsin was the result of a foreign language problem which was evidence to Paxson that complete amalgamation had not taken place.²⁶ That criticism and that example led Turner's stoutest defender, Joseph Schafer, to say that Paxson was setting up standards of amalgamation "which would prove too high to be attained even under the re-creative potentialities of the most dynamic frontiers"; and to defend Turner against having made any assumption of Americanization in the sense "of making over new European immigrants according to a pre-conceived American pattern."

"It is not likely," he said, "that Turner regarded linguistic conformity (reference is to the Bennet Law) as an indispensable condition of true Americanism. . . ."²⁷

In further support of his criticism of the "composite race and Americanization" concept, Paxson went on to say:

It may be doubted whether Americans were ever as fully Americanized as they appeared to be at the end of the first century under the constitution. The non-English races had come and had been in a large measure submerged and had done the heavy work, making no violent protest. But what was imminent in 1893 was not peace and a new blend, but a revolt of those very groups whose happy acceptance of Ameri-

canization is essential to the complete hypothesis. Already the old-line stock was self-conscious. The Sons of the American Revolution (1889) had been followed by the Daughters (1891); and patriotic ancestral societies were hooked up to every chain that derived from eighteenth century activity. It was a self-consciousness that ignored the newer stocks. And the ignoring was met with defiance from the Scotch-Irish Society of America (1887); and from the American Irish Historical Society (1897) whose protagonists asserted "It is beginning to dawn on American minds that this republic is the child of Europe and not of England."

The "blend" of which Turner wrote, said Paxson, needed re-examination.²⁸

While agreeing with Turner that the frontier worked in the direction of democracy, Paxson did not agree that the frontier was the sole or even the principal cause of democracy and pointed to the progress toward democracy in the nineteenth century in the non-frontier countries in Western Europe as proof. The industrial revolution in Europe produced a democracy entirely independent of frontier influence and "democratic legislation for the protection of the individual in an industrial world went more rapidly in Europe than in America."²⁹

Wright, Paxson, Hacker, and John D. Hicks have all emphasized the importance of the industrial era and the workers of the cities in the creation of American democracy. Hicks, without accusing Turner of a wilful distortion of facts thought that "the striking changes which accompanied the opening of the industrial era have not yet received adequate attention from the western school of historians."³⁰

Paxson agreed with Turner that "American social development has been continually beginning over on the frontier," but he questioned the nationality concept which attributed the development of a national feeling to frontier influence. He doubted that there was much in the way of American nationality until after the successive frontiers had passed and suggested that Webster's "liberty and union, now and forever, one and inseparable" was more of a thesis than a fact and that Lincoln's "brought forth a new nation" was more patriotic emotion than history.

Joseph Schafer, in answer to Paxson, attempted to show how Turner arrived at his conclusion that the West was a nationalistic region by mentioning the close relationship of the settlers to the general government through such agencies as the post office,

²⁴ *Ibid.* pp. 357-362.

²⁵ F. L. Paxson, "A Generation of the Frontier Hypothesis," *The Pacific Historical Review*, II (March, 1933), 36.

²⁶ *Ibid.* pp. 45-46.

²⁷ Joseph Schafer, "Turner's Frontier Philosophy," *The Wisconsin Magazine of History*, XVI (June, 1933), 463-464.

²⁸ F. L. Paxson, "A Generation of the Frontier Hypothesis," *The Pacific Historical Review*, II (March, 1933), 46.

²⁹ *Ibid.* p. 47.

³⁰ Dixon Ryan Fox (Ed.), *Sources of Culture in the Middle West* (New York: Appleton-Century Company, 1934), 76.

the land office, the territorial roads, the school fund, and the river and harbor improvements. As to American democracy, he called on Burke, Rochefaucault, Tocqueville, Chevalier, and Martineau to testify that American democracy "was something apart from Europe."³¹

Schafer agreed that industrial society has made a contribution to democracy and that it is even advancing toward dominance, but he protested against confounding the democracy of the frontier with that of the factory which he said was unhistorical. Especially did he want to remind Turner's critics that the frontier theory was applied "to the period which closed with the frontier's disappearance."³²

Avery Craven has tried to meet the criticisms against Turner in a general way by explaining that:

He believed that nationalism and democracy were both promoted and given a peculiar American flavor by the West and that the individual who lived under its influence acquired new intellectual traits. A coarse strength, a masterful grasp of material things, a restless, buoyant individualism—these and other qualities characterized those who had experienced frontier living.

The statement of these effects was in general terms. Turner used the word "frontier" in loose fashion. Sometimes it referred to a place where men were scarce and nature abundant; again it referred to the process itself and included more than West. He used the terms "democracy" and "nationalism" in equally indefinite fashion. Seldom was he dealing with a specific geographic area. His interest was in the effects of men and environments on each other, and exact definition was not required.

But it was these general effects which appealed to the imagination of most students, and some came to consider them the basic content of the "Turner thesis." They were applied strictly to definite times and places as universal rules. The American experience was unique. Everything about the frontier made for nationalism and democracy. All frontiersmen were rugged individualists, confirmed idealists, and persistent innovators. The all-important matter of the process was forgotten, and the way opened for distortion and misunderstanding.³³

Carl Becker, without defending or refuting the frontier hypothesis said:

If Turner still lies under suspicion, one thing

I will stoutly affirm in his defence; the social progress which entices him is not the Transcendent Idea, or any of its many poor relations. His social process isn't something in the void working over the heads of men, rough hewing them to its own ends. His social process is something that emerges from the thought and action of men, something incidental to what people do for their own ends. It wasn't the "march of civilization" that chased the Indian, nor did the poor fellow die of deficient "cultural capacity." The poor fellow died of bullets fired from rifles in the hands of Daniel Boone, and men of his ilk; men who fired the bullets, not in behalf of civilization or the social process, but on their own behalf, because they wanted lands for hunting purposes or for planting. . . .³⁴

John D. Hicks intimated that it was Turner's followers rather than he himself who saw in the frontier philosophy "the complete key to American history that Turner himself never claimed for it. . . ." In reviewing Turner's last and unfinished work, *The United States, 1830-1850; The Nation and Its Sections*, he indicated that he was not sympathetic with the dispute between "Turnerians and anti-Turnerians." He said:

It seems truly unfortunate that promising young scholars can think of no better way to make reputations for themselves than by attacking or defending the views of someone else, however great he may be. The difference between the contenders is after all not very great. Only the most obstinate of the "antis" will deny that there has been a certain uniqueness in the history of the United States that is traceable to the frontier and to the sections that followed in its wake. And only the most obstinate of the "pros" will insist that the frontier and sectional factors alone can explain the course of American development. Whether the frontier heritage will permanently affect our national character, as Professor Turner thought, or not, is for the present quite beside the point. The historian of the far distant future will have to take care of that. Instead of the continual flow of argument, which in its aridity is fast approaching the worst that the scholastics ever did, both "pros" and "antis" might better join hands in a new attack on the sources, and make a new venture into the realm of interpretation.³⁵

³¹ Joseph Schafer, "Turner's Frontier Philosophy," *The Wisconsin Magazine of History*, XVI (June, 1933), 458-460.

³² *Ibid.*, p. 468.

³³ W. T. Hutchinson (Ed.), *The Marcus W. Jernegan Essays in American Historiography*, pp. 255-256.

³⁴ Howard W. Odum (Ed.), *American Masters of Social Science* (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1927), 297-298.

³⁵ John D. Hicks, Review of *The United States, 1830-1850; The Nation and Its Sections*, in *American Historical Review*, XLI (January 1936), 357.

Visual and Other Aids

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FILMS AND SLIDE FILMS

"Safety in the Home"—the precautions taken by a typical safety-conscious family in guarding its home against accident. (Fifth grade through high school.) Running time, 30 minutes. 16 mm., silent. National Safety Council, 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago, Illinois.

"Another to Conquer"—A description of the American Indian's fight against tuberculosis. It is a faithful portrayal of Indian life, including sheep roundups, Indian dances, and the horsemanship. Filmed on a Navajo reservation in Arizona. Running time, 22 minutes. 16 mm. and 35 mm., sound. Consult your state or local tuberculosis association or write to the National Tuberculosis Association, 1790 Broadway, New York.

"Harding Junior High School from A to Z"—A complete story of this school's activities and classroom studies in all departments. Running time, 40 minutes. 16 mm., silent. Color. Free. H. O. Davis, 522 North Broadway, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma.

A slide film on housing consisting of eighty pictures entitled: "Yes, We Can Have Housing," has been produced by the United States Housing Authority. The film includes the following aspects of the problem: health, children, finance and housing education. A copy of the film with speech notes may be obtained for 75 cents by writing to Photo Laboratories, Inc., 3825 Georgia Avenue N.W., Washington, D.C. One may obtain the pamphlet: "How to Make Your Own Illustrated Lecture on Housing," which tells how to combine parts of this film slide, with local pictures and local data, by writing to the Information Division, United States Housing Authority, Washington, D.C.

"Roads and Erosion"—This two-reel sound film depicts the measures taken by farmers and highway departments to control soil erosion on farms and highways. Available from the United States Department of Agriculture on a free loan basis.

"Land of the Incas"—The Peruvian Andes form the background for the scenes of ancient ruins and contemporary village life in this one-reel silent film available on a rental or purchase basis from Castle Films, Inc., 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City.

"Farmers in a Changing World"—A two-reel sound film which presents the international agricultural situation with special reference to the place of United States export crops. It presents the function-

ing of the Agricultural Adjustment Administration through the Agriculture Adjustment Act in cushioning the economic adjustment due to changing world conditions. Available on a free loan basis through the Motion Picture Extension Service, United States Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C.

"Kentucky Pioneers"—A one-reel sound film depicting migration in Kentucky in the 1780's. Travel on the Wilderness Road, frontier forts and early settlements are featured. Frontier activities shown include candle making, weaving, log cabin construction, soap-making and cooking. May be purchased from Erpi Classroom Films, Inc., 3511 35th Avenue, Long Island City, New York.

The Tennessee Valley Authority has issued a two-reel sound film in 16 mm. and 35 mm. size, which describes the Tennessee Valley Authority project in detail. The film may be obtained from the TVA, Knoxville, Tennessee, by paying transportation charges only.

BULLETINS

The following two bulletins issued by the Evaluation of School Broadcasts, Ohio State University, may be obtained from the Publications Office:

"Network School Broadcasts: Some Conclusions and Recommendations." In the bulletin three regular weekly broadcast series of the American School of The Air are carefully analyzed by selected teachers in different parts of the country and by the Evaluation of School Broadcasts staff members. Recommendations are made for the preparation and production of school broadcasts. Bulletin No. 35; price 10 cents.

The second bulletin is entitled, "School-Wide Use of Radio," by Norman Woelfel and Irving Robbins. This bulletin describes the effects upon students and teachers of a course of study which included one year's use of a network series of school broadcasts on a school-wide basis. It suggests a method for extending the use of school broadcasts without interfering with the school schedule. Bulletin No. 30; price 25 cents.

"Aides to Democracy: Radio, Movies, Press," consisting of reprints from the *Newsletter* published by the Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, is a twenty-one page pamphlet which discusses methods of using visual and auditory aids in the educational program in order to strengthen democracy; price 25 cents.

RADIO TRANSCRIPTS AND RECORDINGS

RCA Victor has issued a volume of excerpts from speeches of each of the Presidents of the United States during the present century.

Erpi Classroom Films has prepared twenty documentary episodes on the "Growth of Democracy" from the Magna Carta to the signing of the American Constitution.

News and Comment

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ESSENTIALISM AND PROGRESSIVISM

In October and November *The Journal* of the National Education Association presented the case for essentialism and for progressivism from the pens of two of the foremost master-teachers in America. In October, Dr. William C. Bagley, now editor of *School and Society*, argued "The Case for Essentialism in Education." In November, Dr. William H. Kilpatrick, now editor of *Frontiers of Democracy*, gave the progressive arguments. The two articles, representing two great schools of modern educational theory, are well worth keeping and pondering over.

For about three centuries, now, educators have debated the relative merits of those factors in education which Dr. Bagley baldly states as dualisms: "Effect *vs.* interest; discipline *vs.* freedom; race experience *vs.* individual experience; teacher initiative *vs.* learner initiative; logical organization *vs.* psychological organization; subjects *vs.* activities; remote goals *vs.* immediate goals; and the like." Each factor of a pair, of course, is necessary in education. But various schools differ in their stress upon one or another.

Modern mass education, the importance of citizenship in the democratic state, new conditions and requirements of vocational training and employment, and other factors today give a new slant to the paired items. In his brief discussion of these pairs Dr. Bagley does not deny progressive theory, but he does set over against it the essentialist warning. Interest is important and motivating interests are many indeed, he says, but "practically all the higher and more nearly permanent interests grow out of efforts to learn that are not at the outset interesting or appealing in themselves." If there is initial interest, which leads to a higher one, well and good. But if not, the essentialist recognizes the need for discipline and duty, even if not self-imposed, to attain it. In a democracy discipline is no less necessary than in a totalitarian state. Of all creatures man alone is capable of sustained effort even if it is not supported by initial interest.

Learner initiative is important. But the teacher is responsible for the guidance and direction of children

and cannot center responsibility in the immature learner himself. Self-discipline, self-direction, freedom, and the like are not conferred; they are only achieved through effort, through discipline and mastery. This does not mean imposition in place of cooperation nor blind doing instead of willing purposing. Is freedom possible without willingness—good will—on the part of the free agent? One recalls the child in the so-called progressive school who wanted to know if today he had to do whatever he pleased. As Dr. Bagley presents the case the differences between the progressives and essentialists are in degree rather than in kind.

There are essentials, he says, which must be taught to the younger generation. Surely they must become skilled in writing, computing, and measuring, or our civilization falls. They must acquire knowledge of the past of the race and of their own nation. They must be instructed in the care of health, in the fine and the industrial arts, and in the sciences. But in a democracy, such instruction should stem from cooperative willingness of those freely engaged in a common work.

KNOWLEDGE AND MOTIVATION

Related to this discussion is a recent article which insists that knowledge alone is not power but requires the energizing drive of interest and motive. Harold Saxe Tuttle of the College of the City of New York, in the October 18 issue of *School and Society*, declared that "Knowledge Is Powerless!" Of itself, it promotes little or no action. It is directive rather than dynamic, indicating a line of action but furnishing no propelling force. It is a commonplace that men so often do not act in accordance with their knowledge.

To the guidance and efficiency of knowledge is added drive when feeling—interest, desire, motive—impregnates it. A study among college freshmen showed that the social attitudes of those pursuing the social sciences were improved as the months went by no more than the social attitudes of their college mates in the fields of mathematics and science. Motivation for social concern apparently does not

result from logic, talk, and recitation; it requires other procedures. Teachers know the procedures for imparting knowledge. What procedures will best make students social minded, will make them desire to be active participants in our democratic society? Some have found such activities as clean-up campaigns and housing surveys helpful in supplying drive.

For centuries it was necessary for teachers to be concerned only with imparting knowledge. Few youth came to school, and they came because they or their parents wanted something which the school offered. They brought their own drive, motivation, with them. Procedures to impart feelings were little needed. Now, with universal education that is compulsory, we find those procedures are needed no less than those for imparting knowledge. That is our problem. We have no inherited technique for meeting it. Are we really trying hard enough to develop one?

SUBJECTS AND OBJECTIVES

Differently worded as they are, statements about the ultimate objectives of our education are in general agreement and have been for many years. There are, however, divergent views about the means to employ for achieving those ends. Professor Stephen M. Corey of the University of Chicago sought to bridge the gap, in his article on "Subject Matter: Means or End?" which appeared in *The School Review* for October.

For instance, a well-recognized aim is that of developing an appreciation of the democratic way of life. To achieve it some say children must practice meeting democratically the situations arising in their own lives. Others say children must learn the story of the development of our democratic principles since colonial times. One group sees as central the need for children to practice democracy if they are to learn it; the other sees the need to present to children a logical body of knowledge of their social inheritance.

Are these mutually exclusive? Do not both the pupil-problem approach and the subject-matter approach, in good practice everywhere, have many activities in common? The teacher of subject matter will agree that if it is to function in the pupil's life it must be presented to him in situations where it will be most meaningful to him. Such are life situations. But this teacher warns that occupation with discrete and specific projects and problems that arise adventitiously in the classroom may fail to acquaint the pupil with vital aspects of his heritage and may hide basic meanings from him because of the absence of a unifying synthesis of his learning. And so the contending arguments go.

In our schools, the subject-matter curriculum predominates. It and other obstacles to reorganization on a thorough-going pupil-problem basis—such as

administrative traditions, financial difficulties, the background of pupil- and teacher-upbringing in the traditional school—favor a compromise approach. The core curriculum is one such compromise. The experience with such a compromise in the Laboratory High School of the University of Chicago, of which Professor Corey is superintendent, is described by him at some length. His article is the result of actual experience in curriculum adjustment in a high school, and for that reason is especially helpful for teachers busied with curriculum reorganization.

SOCIAL STUDIES UNITS

The better part of a generation usually intervenes before the findings of research become part of classroom textbooks. The high-school teacher, occupied all the day with curricular and co-curricular activities, rarely has time or energy left to study the records of recent research and plan to incorporate into his work the findings of contemporary scholars. The National Association of Secondary-School Principals and the National Council for the Social Studies, aided by a money grant from the General Education Board, are helping teachers to bridge this gap between scholarship and textbook. In charge of this work is a Committee on Education for Democratic Citizenship.

Following a period of try-out, next spring, a new series of inexpensive teaching units will become available to teachers of the social studies. Each unit, called a resource unit, will include an analysis of the problem, reading references, teaching aims and procedures, pupil activities and outcomes, and a guide to evaluation. Units already planned include "Democracy and Dictatorship," "Public Finance," "Race and Cultural Relations," "Public Opinion," "Population," "Family Relations," "Youth," and "Agriculture." These units are for the use of teachers only and are not to be placed in the hands of pupils.

The analysis, up to fifteen-thousand words in length, will be prepared by an eminent specialist who not only will give the latest information but will point out underlying assumptions and values and suggest bibliographical material. Both sides of controversial issues will be presented, leaving conclusions to the judgment of teachers and pupils. Teaching aims and pupil activities will be provided by a master teacher. With them will come suggestions for reading, field trips, and the use of audio-visual aids. Planning for these activities, it is assumed, will be a matter for teacher-pupil cooperation and not a teacher problem only. Such planning will, therefore, vary from school to school and not follow one pattern. A complete list of the resource units can be secured from Professor Paul B. Jacobson, University of Chicago, who described this project in *The School Review* for October (pp. 561-565).

THE SCHOOLS AND THE WAR

At Teachers College, Columbia University, a symposium on defense activities was held recently which has many suggestions for teachers. A report on it, in the form of fourteen brief statements, was made in *Teachers College Record* for October, under the title, "The Schools and Defense." Although they deal with many aspects of a community program for defense, about half of the statements bear on the work of social studies.

In this connection, it is worth while to turn to the unit on "National Defense," in *The Clearing House* for October. It was taught to more than ten thousand high-school seniors in the schools of Los Angeles. Mr. William B. Brown, curriculum director of those schools, tells how the unit came to be developed by the teachers and administrators and how it was put into use. His account provides the outline of the unit and gives illustrations of the various materials used in working with it, including radio.

As pointed out here last month, the issues of *The Journal of Educational Sociology*, this season, are especially helpful on this subject. Each issue contains several articles on aspects of "Education and the War."

In *School Life* for October, United States Commissioner of Education John W. Studebaker summarized the latest pronouncement by the Educational Policies Commission. At least five such statements on American educational policy have been made by the Commission since 1935, under the general head of Education and American Democracy. The latest, on "The Education of Free Men in American Democracy," was prepared by Professor George S. Counts of Teachers College, Columbia University. Commissioner Studebaker listed, with brief comment, the beliefs, loyalties, and patterns of knowledge essential to democracy. He summarized the interpretation of discipline in democracy, which Dr. Counts described, and enumerated the deficiencies in American life and character which the school must help to correct before democratic discipline can be achieved.

References to portions of this publication were made in this department last month. Dr. Studebaker's summary will be found useful where the original work is not available.

BRITAIN: 1940-1941

To commemorate the heroic evacuation of Dunkirk, about a year ago, *The New Republic*, on October 13, printed five articles from distinguished men, four British and one American, in a special section entitled "Britain: Dunkirk to Moscow." Herbert Agar, distinguished American editor and author, paid tribute to the patient, unromantic heroism of the common people of Britain. Some features of a better

world which those people will insist upon, when Hitlerism is crushed, were recounted by Arthur Greenwood. His choice of topic is perhaps an omen, since he is the noted Labor representative in Parliament and in the War Cabinet. Other contributors in the series bore witness to the dogged determination of the common people, in industry and in home defense.

Mr. Greenwood declared that, after Hitler is defeated, victory will have to be won. Plans for it are now being laid. In post-war reconstruction towns must be rebuilt attractively, slums must disappear, and homes must have charm along with the modern conveniences of living. Industry, replanned, must take account of human and social values no less than economic. Decentralization of industrial population and a new emphasis upon agricultural activity are essential if the peace is to be won.

Julian Huxley wrote of the "U" powers: the U.S., the U.S.S.R., and the U.K. or United Kingdom. Can Russia be kept on the side of the democracies, after the war? As a land power she seems to be the economic complement of the other two "U" powers which are great maritime nations. While Great Britain and the United States seem to be moving toward greater collectivism, Russia seems to be turning from the revolutionary communist phase and to be emphasizing patriotism, the family, and religious toleration. The gap is less wide than formerly, between Russia and the democracies. The neuroses of the "U" powers are waning: isolation in the U.S., appeasement in the U.K., and fear of capitalist-fascist attack in U.S.S.R. Mr. Huxley sought to make a case for a combination of the "U" powers on a basis of co-operation and not of imperialism. Have not stranger things happened?

POST-WAR PROBLEMS

As the months pass, the realization deepens that our post-war problems will be fearful. Small though it may seem to be, there is comfort in the analyses and suggestions of thoughtful men. In *The Nation* for October 18 a series of articles was begun which study this problem. Having in mind "America After Defense," the well-known journalist, Alden Stevens, made his contribution to how "Defense Changes America" by describing the revolution now going on in industry. His chief consideration was the problem of peace-time employment for the millions who in recent months have been put into war-time work or into our armed forces.

Hitherto, thirty million people have lived on our six million farms. The defense program, by drawing men off the farms to the factories and army, has speeded up the use of machines on farms. When peace comes, those men will not be needed again back on the farm. The airplane industry has grown

at a tremendous rate, and its productive capacity will far exceed the power of peace-time demands to absorb the output. What of these plants and workers, then? Mass production in housing requires but a fraction of the labor supply now used in the industry. Practical, sturdy, pre-fabricated houses are being turned out by more and more firms, calling upon a small crew to build a house in a few hours which by the older methods took many weeks. The difference in cost, per house, is tremendous. The same story is told by other industries—steel, textiles, food packing and processing, and the rest. With factories becoming more automatic and efficient than ever, can enough, necessary service occupations be created to take up the unemployment slack? Mr. Stevens' study of the problem is worth while in that it may help us to see more quickly what to do as we enter the problem-strewn terrain of the post-war era.

For several issues beginning with that of October, *Common Sense* is presenting articles by prominent American and foreign writers on the same subject, under the general title, "Beyond Defense: The Shape of Our Future." It is a series of critical interpretations of our domestic and foreign policies from the standpoint of the future, and therefore supplements the series in *The Nation*. Together they make an enlightening set of analyses and discussions of the way that lies ahead for our democracy, after Hitlerism is overthrown. What are thought and done today will shape, in part, our views, our attitudes, our appreciations, and our policies and programs tomorrow.

LEISURE

Professor Charles C. Peters of Pennsylvania State College compressed many suggestions on "Education for Leisure" into a brief article in the October issue of the *Curriculum Journal*. It is his belief that to contrast work with leisure is to blind one to the fact that both should yield satisfactions. Mechanization, when carried far enough, will take the drudgery out of work, leaving us free to seek in work, as in leisure, "the element of creativeness, of satisfyingness, of personal enrichment."

The human values in work and leisure are sapped by drudgery in the one case and by coercion in the other. Education for leisure which uses its activities to harden citizens for emergencies is misdirected. Athenian prowess in the ancient wars compares well with that of the hardened Spartans; and the Britons show themselves to be equal in stamina to the Germans. Moreover, the coercion of athletics and other games where coaching makes a business of play tends to rob them of the human values that depend upon spontaneity. Training is not ruled out. But it is one thing to play for the fun of the game and another to labor at it because games must be won. So many factors conspire to make victory-winning an obliga-

tion—from bridge to football—that it is hard to eliminate coercion.

There should be the greatest diversity in leisure activities, depending upon the person and the circumstances. Serious improvement through leisure is important, but irresponsible moments of idling may make their useful contribution, too. So Professor Peters classifies leisure activities into a half-dozen major categories, each including many things to do, if one cares to, which have value for men: (1) Talk, matching ideas, as around the cracker barrel in the country store. Such converse is essential in a democratic nation. (2) Festive celebrations of all kinds: church gatherings, parades, games, fairs, holidays, picnics, and the like. Such occasions foster friendly attitudes and promote social solidarity and tolerance. (3) Creative hobby work. (4) Enjoyments of the arts. These two are likely to be more individual than the first two. The range of activities they cover is limited only by human talent, interest, and ingenuity. (5) Exploratory activities of all sorts, such as hiking, traveling, fishing, and exploring. (6) Idling. There are times when to loaf and invite one's soul is recreational.

Teachers can counsel and guide, acquainting youth with the varied kinds of leisure activities they can pursue in after years and opening their eyes to the multitude of human values in worthy leisure interests.

YOUTH SENATE

The success of the youth forum held last Christmas by the Pennsylvania teachers of social studies in connection with the regular conference of the Pennsylvania State Education Association at Harrisburg has led them to repeat it on a more ambitious scale this Christmas, on the same occasion. The Senate caucus described in this department one year ago will become a regular youth Senate session in the Capitol at Harrisburg, on the afternoon of December 30. It will debate bills dealing with juvenile delinquency.

As was true last year, various government officials and legislators are taking great interest in the meeting of youthful representatives of the state senatorial districts. These men are arranging bills to be presented for debate and will be on hand to see to it that proper Senate procedure is adhered to. The experience of the high-school boys and girls who act as senators and of the teachers who watch the proceedings is of great value. There is a better understanding of the human elements in government and of the difficulties of the problems which men in government must deal with. For those school districts which conduct youth forums and conferences the Senate is a model and an example.

To overcome strangeness and promote fellowship, a get-together is planned for the morning. The young people, teachers, and officials will meet, become ac-

quainted, and have lunch together. Members of the government will address the group there.

To the Pennsylvania Social Studies Council, which is planning the affair, it is the highlight of three days of activity. On Monday evening preceding the Senate session the Council has arranged for a supper meeting of its executive committee and others who are interested, in order to promote acquaintance and friendship among teachers of the social studies in the various parts of the state. On Wednesday, at the annual social-studies round-table of the Pennsylvania State Education Association, the Council will arrange a program on "The Role of Social Studies in 'Make America Strong,'" the theme of the whole conference. Stress will be laid upon practical things that are being done and can be done in schools and communities all over the state.

For several years the Council has been striving to deepen the sense of fellowship and worthy professional pride among the social studies teachers of the state. This year promises a higher level of achievement in these endeavors than ever before.

N.E.F. CONFERENCE

For the first time since its inception at the close of World War I the New Education Fellowship held its conference in the Western Hemisphere. At this conference at Ann Arbor last summer, the eighth of its kind, every state of the Americas was represented, instead of two or three as heretofore. This, too, was the first meeting under war conditions. The N.E.F. is one of the important pieces of social machinery created to grapple with educational problems common to many nations, to cement bonds of understanding through contact, to serve as a medium for the interchange of educational ideas and activities, and to promote international cooperation and good will.

Progressive Education for October reported at length on this conference. Its digests of addresses by distinguished educators from both sides of the Atlantic give the profession knowledge of an event too important to be overlooked by any teacher. This "Conference Issue" also presented a great deal of material on the Americas, such as sources of information in many fields of culture, lists of books, the activities of the Workshop on Latin American Studies, and examples of children's art in the Americas.

FOR THE TEACHER

Professors Bruner and Wieting, in the October number of *Curriculum Journal*, gathered together an "Annual List of Outstanding Curriculum Materials." Here teachers will find definite references to courses, units, teaching procedures, and other activities in

schools in all parts of the nation, on all grade levels, and in all subjects. This list covers materials received by the Curriculum Laboratory of Teachers College, Columbia University, between January, 1940, and March, 1941. Previous lists appeared in the December issues of *Curriculum Journal* for 1936, 1937, 1938, and 1939.

With Dean William F. Russell of Teachers College as its Director, a National Advisory Board has been set up by the U.S. Attorney-General and a National Citizenship Education Program launched. Federal, state, and local agencies will cooperate in the work of training our foreign-born in and for citizenship. Since there are five million non-citizens in our midst, the problem of training them is an immense one. Schools, WPA, other federal agencies, state and local agencies, foreign-language papers, churches, and other organizations are looked to for help. The national body will act as adviser, guide, and coordinator. It will assist in securing materials and will give expert aid. Dr. Russell's headquarters are in the United States Office of Education, Washington, D.C.

In the second of his series of articles in *The Journal* of the N.E.A. for October, Secretary William G. Carr of the Educational Policies Commission gave examples from the Commission's *Learning the Ways of Democracy* to illustrate how schools are building a sense of responsibility in their pupils. A Massachusetts high school is using a town meeting, a Tennessee high school is using a cooperative store and cafeteria, and a Louisiana high school girls club operates a school bookstore. Dr. Carr stressed the fact that such activities, conducted on a cooperative, democratic basis, exemplify the responsibilities of citizenship, the complements of democratic rights and privileges. This series of articles is helpful to those seeking to make democracy more significant to young people.

In *The Nation* for October 19 (p. 373), Keith Hutchison quotes some figures from a study prepared for the famous T.N.E.C. which shows that the burden of taxation is more largely borne by lower income-groups than by the wealthy, as is so commonly supposed. Such figures are not usually available and are therefore all the more useful in classes studying problems of the nation.

MEETING

The American Historical Association will hold its annual meeting in Chicago, December 29-31, 1941. Thirteen societies will meet jointly with the Association. Speakers from all parts of the United States will participate and guest speakers will include Major George Fielding Eliot, Stanley K. Hornbeck, Walter Millis, Carl Sandburg, and others. Headquarters will be at the Stevens Hotel, Chicago.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by RICHARD HEINDEL

University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia

Government Spending and Economic Expansion. By Arthur E. Burns and Donald S. Watson. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1940. Pp. vi, 176. \$2.50.

The authors of this book have produced a study that is provocative of serious thought. They have found and diagnosed the problems that have faced the government, the industrialists, the agriculturists, and the unemployed. Their suggested remedies would not be accepted, with any degree of unanimity, by the public or by the economists. Every opponent of the present administration should read this book, however, for it would give him a new point of view in regard to the supposed dangers of the government spending policy as a solution of the depression difficulties.

The vastly increased government spending is indicative of the growing importance of government in economic affairs. Large-scale spending denotes the shift in the dynamic forces of the national economic system: a shift from private initiative to governmental enterprise and control. The rapid expansion of governmental expenditures, governmental machinery and powers, resulting in increased business control, has materially affected our whole economic life.

The authors have succeeded in their efforts to show the origin of government spending, how it developed as a national policy, and how spending has become the major lever by which the federal government is assuming economic initiative.

Conditions forced the government to adopt the spending policy because deflation did not bring recovery. The Hoover and Roosevelt administrations believed in the traditional policy of balancing the budget. But the income from taxation caused the deficit in the treasury to continue to grow to the alarm of the government and to the orthodox economist. Unemployment likewise mounted by the millions, thus producing prodigious waste in human and capital resources.

The spending policy was adopted as a temporary expedient. The failure of business to respond readily to such treatment forced an unwilling government to spend more and more until spending became a recognized government policy. Spending, at the present, is being directed more towards increasing the production of armaments. The latter type of spending is meeting with more popular response.

Despite the enormous expenditures, the authors contend that the government has spent too little. "In

a real sense what was spent was saved, because spending put idle men and machines to work. Had more been spent, the 1930's would have cost less" (p. 1). The real criticism of the spending was that the government was too miserly with the sums spent and failed to make them permanent, thus avoiding business uncertainty. The spending policy, in those abnormal times, did not threaten the American traditional system, but helped to retain it. "Public spending merely reinforces the individualistic enterprise by making business profitable" (p. 162).

The authors contend that the national debt is a minor problem and should not worry any one. There is more to be feared from curtailment of expenditures. The same principle, assert the authors, applies to the budget. The efforts of the 1930's to balance the budget aggravated business conditions and increased unemployment. Some people "impute to a balanced budget a strong magic over business conditions, usually by way of 'confidence'. Confidence comes with the expectation of profits." Large profits, needless to say, have been made when the budget was badly out of balance. "Between the two budgetary situations, an unbalanced budget is probably more conducive to profits than a balanced budget, and more profit will come with a big deficit than with a small deficit" (170). "New Deal spending injected new energy into the system—but not enough. We need more spending, public and private, to put America to work for its own security and strength" (171).

The authors have an economic philosophy and they have presented it well. Every one should read their study to understand the viewpoint. They might be wrong but their message is intriguing.

GEORGE D. HARMON

Lehigh University
Bethlehem, Pa.

The Assembly of the League of Nations. By Margaret E. Burton. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press. 1941. Pp. 441. \$4.50.

It is an encouraging thing, from the point of view of international cooperation, that what is probably the best book on the Geneva Assembly should appear at a time when most people would find it difficult to answer the question: What is the current status of the League of Nations? And Miss Burton's painstaking study, based on primary sources and direct observation, is without doubt the most satisfying

work of its type in English. Well written, skillfully organized, thoroughly documented, closely knit, it provides a complete record of the experience and procedure of the popular organ of the League from its inception to its present quiescence.

The organization is partly chronological and partly topical. The first quarter of the volume deals with the growth of the League idea among Allied and American leaders, the proceedings of the League of Nations Commission at the Paris Peace Conference, and the actual establishment of the Assembly. The second quarter is devoted to a survey of the Assembly's composition and organization and to an analysis of the effect on Assembly influence of the unanimity rule. (Here the investigation has led to the interesting conclusion that "when loyalty to the purpose of the League has been stronger than the political motives which have influenced states to oppose a proposed measure, the unanimity rule has not been an insuperable, often not even a serious, obstacle to effective action. When, however, the opposite situation has prevailed, the province of Article 5 of the Covenant has rendered the Assembly almost entirely impotent.") The remainder of the volume discusses the position of the Assembly as an opinion-forming and policy-making body, and its relation to international legislation and disputes among nations.

Miss Burton's conclusions, cautiously drawn, are interesting and useful. She believes, first, that in providing an international form the Assembly has made one of its greatest contributions. Secondly, that the Assembly, as the organ containing representatives of all League members, rightly assumed the prerogative of making decisions on policy and principle. Thirdly, that the Assembly or any successor in future should be empowered itself to adopt international conventions on non-political subjects. And fourthly, that the Assembly, as at present constituted, is not well adapted to "the delicate processes of negotiation" that are necessary in any attempt to settle peaceably a major international dispute.

It seems clear from, and is implied in Miss Burton's book that any practical reform of the League, particularly with respect to its function as an upholder of peace, must be an integrated reform. Hence there is great need for additional and equally careful studies of the remaining League bodies, especially the Council. It is to be hoped that the same author may find the time and inclination to prepare such studies, showing for the other organs, as she has for the Assembly, what may need to be modified and what may remain as foundation and framework either for a revived League or for a successor.

WALTER CONSUELO LANGSAM

Union College
Schenectady, N.Y.

What Our Schools Are Teaching: An Analysis of the Content of Selected Courses of Study with Special Reference to Science, Social Studies, and Industrial Arts. By H. B. Bruner, H. M. Evans, et al. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1941. Pp. xii, 225. \$3.00.

The advent of many new studies in the nineteenth century and an increasing volume in the twentieth have rendered the selection of materials for study difficult to a degree heretofore unknown. The difficulty has been augmented by changing psychologies and philosophies which have tended generally towards a highly specific concentration of learning, and away from education and knowledge, information, mental discipline, all-round development. Varied indeed have been the principles laid down for remaking the curriculum. The combined influence of curriculum adjusters, ranging all the way from mild reformers to those who held that the curriculum should be "made on the spot," from day to day, has been enormous. Making new curricula has become the major occupation of many teachers. There may be some connection between this curriculum war and the low attainments complained of in several quarters. After the battle it is appropriate to add up the spoils of victory and count the dead. This volume aims to appraise the situation, in so far as it can be done by analyzing actual courses of study.

About 85,000 courses of study have been collected by the Curriculum Laboratory of Teachers College, Columbia University, between 1924 and 1940. Analyses are presented here of some of those for science, social studies and industrial arts, grades 4 to 12. Thus, out of 13,422 courses of study available in social studies, 277 were selected for analysis; of 5,131 science courses, 132 were analyzed; and, in industrial arts, a study was made of 223 out of 2,952 available. Courses were selected for analysis according to geographical distribution, rural and urban areas, and with respect to source of origin, in state departments and local school systems. An additional and very significant factor in selection was the emphasis laid on courses of study judged outstanding. The criteria used in determining "outstanding" courses were set forth in *Rating Elementary School Courses of Study*, Teachers College, 1926, and the *Teachers College Record*, November, 1937—the latter reproduced in Appendix I. This factor of judgment in terms of a particularly philosophy (whether it be right or wrong is not the question here) renders the picture of what is taught in our schools less representative than it would otherwise be. The findings on social science are particularly affected since "a majority of the courses" analyzed were of the "outstanding" category, whereas, in studying science and industrial arts, a better balance was maintained between "outstand-

ing" and "median" practice (p. 119). Many readers would doubtless be interested in knowing *What Our Schools Are Teaching* in social science, regardless of how they stand *vis à vis* a particular philosophy.

The chief feature that lays claim to novelty is the development of an "index of significance" which is worked out for each unit (major grouping) and topic (minor grouping) of subject matter. Thus, state history and geography topics have an index of 43:4173/277; which means that of 277 courses analyzed, 43 gave a total of 4,173 items to these areas. This is a rather high index; localism seems to be well taken care of. As for "Early Medieval Civilizations," their position is still stronger, with an index of 58:8049/277, the highest of all topics appearing under "World History Topics." Those who have been fearful of democracy's well-being may take courage from its index of 15:209/277. Dictatorship makes a poor show with only 4:41/277; the heartbeat of Communism is very low, only 1:11/277. This most insignificant of "significant indexes" may induce Congress to save our money when Martin Dies asks for a new appropriation! Fascism, too, is a little anaemic, rating only 1:12/277. "The wave of the future" has evidently not inundated our schools, unless it is wearing away the foundations of the Republic in the great mass of schools represented by the non-select courses of study. Of course, those who really love to "view with alarm" may find grounds alarming enough in the index for "International and Peace Relations," 56:1962/277.

The techniques of the study are set forth in great detail (pp. 8-54). The book will be of interest primarily to those concerned with the three areas covered, and to those who wish to undertake similar studies. There will be wide differences of opinion as to the significance of the "index of significance." For those who want to look up particular matters, just an old-fashioned index in the same old place would have been useful.

THOMAS WOODY

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pa.

Teaching the Social Studies in Secondary Schools. By Arthur C. and David H. Bining. Second Edition. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1941. Pp. xiv, 378. \$2.75.

In this second edition of a well-known text the material in each chapter has been revised and reevaluated, two chapters on "Fusion, Correlation, and Integration" and "The Teaching of Current Events" have been omitted, and chapters entitled "The Materials of Instruction" and "The School Library and the Social Studies" have been added. There are excellent pages on the aims of the social studies, the lecture

and problem methods of teaching, teacher planning, and socialized recitation. The book is based on the broad assumption that the major purpose of the social studies should be to enrich the lives of students and prepare them to be responsible members of a free society.

NORMAN D. PALMER

Colby College
Waterville, Me.

Organizing the Social Studies in Secondary Schools. By Arthur C. Bining, Walter H. Mohr, and Richard H. McFeeley. McGraw Hill Book Company, 1941. Pp. xi, 337. \$2.75.

The social studies curriculum is in a state of flux today because the conventional presentation of subject matter has failed to produce socially-minded individuals who are able and willing to assume the responsibilities of democratic citizenship. Every competent teacher in this field is aware of the magnitude of his task and of the difficulty of keeping in touch with current trends and experiments. This volume (a companion work to Arthur C. and David H. Bining's *Teaching the Social Studies in Secondary Schools*) summarizes much of the information he needs. It is a sane, balanced, straight-forward, and rather simplified presentation of the latest theories and practices in planning the social studies curriculum in secondary schools. It deals both with general principles of curriculum organization and student guidance and with practical approaches to the various interrelated fields of the social studies.

The bulk of the book is devoted to the problems of organizing courses in the subjects of American, European, and world history, international relations, civics and government, problems of American democracy, economics, sociology, current events, and geography. The authors believe that in some form or other material from all of these fields should be included in a social studies curriculum.

In view of the increasing tendency to depart from the teaching of subjects as detached units, considerable attention is devoted to various methods of correlation, fusion, and integration, with particular emphasis on the new types of curricula based on core problems, areas of human activity, and the social-process approach. Due recognition is given to the Virginia curriculum and to the work of the schools of the Eight-year Experimental Study. The net result of these and similar experiments has been "the change from a fixed, narrow information curriculum to one rich in functional knowledge and practical civic and sociological content." It is all too clear, however, that we are still far from the goal of a program of social studies which will contribute adequately to the development of socially responsible citizens.

Although the authors believe that the entire program of the school should be integrated as far as possible, they are careful to stress their opinion that "there is no one best way of organizing the curriculum at the present time." On the contrary, "each organization of courses must grow out of the actual schoolroom situations in which it is being used or developed."

NORMAN D. PALMER

Colby College
Waterville, Me.

Congressional Procedure. By Floyd M. Riddick. Boston: Chapman and Grimes, 1941. Pp. 376. \$4.00.

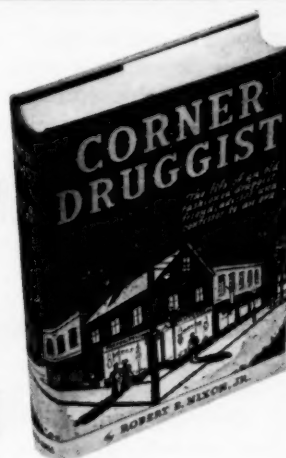
The smaller size of the Senate has permitted that body to operate under a parliamentary law which is much looser and far less complicated than the rules and precedents which govern the conduct of business in the House. Riddick properly devotes most of his book to an analysis of procedure in the lower chamber. A single chapter presents a résumé of Senate procedure, stressing similarities and contrasts with that of the House of Representatives.

Until the publication of this volume no up-to-date and integrated treatment of congressional procedures existed. The author has done a solid job in making available a reasonably compact manual which will be extremely useful to students of the legislative process. It will be carefully read by those who appreciate the significance of legislative efficiency in an era of sharp challenge to the role of representative assemblies, an era of increasing legislative subordination to executive influence.

The first half of the book deals with the institutions through which the House of Representatives conducts its business—the party mechanisms, the Speaker, the floor leader, House committees and officers. This is followed by a discussion of the several varieties of business coming before the House, and an analysis of the intricate procedure employed in transacting this business. Unfortunately, the treatment is primarily descriptive rather than critical and evaluative. The caution adhered to in describing without praise or blame occasionally leads the author into amusing understatements. A sample: "Wild statements made on the floor of the House about how many members are in favor of the passage of certain bills are not always well founded" (p. 295).

In revealing the complex detail of procedure, the book has many surprises even for those who are passingly familiar with House procedure. The fact that a motion to adjourn is always in order does not mean that the House can be called upon at any time to decide whether it should adjourn. The Speaker can refuse to recognize a member who desires to

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move adjournment. Before recognizing any member the Speaker has the right to know for what purpose the member seeks to obtain the floor.

Riddick's achievement in reducing his account of House procedure to a well organized and manageable compass can be appreciated when it is realized that Jefferson's *Manual* is but the nucleus of an enormous accretion which has taken place over the years. The procedural maze winds its way through a large body of formal rules plus eight huge volumes of precedents.

An adequate index makes the book indispensable for reference purposes.

JOHN PERRY HORLACHER

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pa.

McGillycuddy: Agent. By Julia B. McGillycuddy.
Stanford University, Stanford University Press,
1941. Pp. xi, 291. Illustrated. \$3.00.

There can be no doubt of the fact that the Indian agent has ever been the keystone of the entire Indian service. Although it is true that many agents have cheated both the government and the tribes, and have indulged in practices so vicious as to be responsible for war on the frontier, it should be remembered that an equal or larger number did their best to deal honestly with their wards, living a hard life and meeting difficult situations as best they could.

Dr. Valentine T. McGillycuddy belongs to this class. The biography under review—written by his widow—is of value as a contribution to western Americana, throwing light upon one of the least known fields of historical research. Much might be learned of the relations between the government and the Indian tribes by an exhaustive study of the biographies of the agents.

McGillycuddy was in charge of Pine Ridge from 1879 to 1886. Little Big Horn had been fought in 1876; Wounded Knee was fought in 1890—the intervening period was marked by efforts on the part of the government and philanthropists to turn red men into whites. Carlisle School and the Indian Rights Association both labored toward that end. McGillycuddy found himself allied with the progressives at his agency. He rejoiced at each step taken by the Indians along the white man's road; being especially proud of the school and its work. Therefore he was in constant opposition to Red Cloud and the conservatives. The story of the struggle between the two factions is well told by Mrs. McGillycuddy and needs no repetition.

A few criticisms may be made. It is stated that "The trouble between the Interior and the War departments had arisen after the Custer battle, when there was a strong movement over the country generally, and widely discussed in the press, for the

transference of the Indian Bureau from the Interior to the War Department and for the appointment of army officers rather than civilians as agents" (p. 123). As a matter of fact this movement antedates the Custer battle by about a decade, being editorially advocated by the *Philadelphia Inquirer* at least as early as February 18, 1867.

Secondly, the accuracy of the book could be more readily substantiated if exact dates were given for all newspaper citations. Newspapers—rare ones such as the *Laramie Boomerang* and the *Yankton Herald*—have been used frequently. In most cases no dates are appended to quotations.

Lastly, neither bibliography nor index is included in the work. In view of the fact that it is the definitive biography of a man of considerable importance in the history of the frontier, the omissions are lamentable. Nor is any manuscript material from the National Archives cited—and the archives possess much *in re* McGillycuddy.

In spite of its omissions the book is thoroughly worth-while, being written with an enthusiasm that carries the reader effortlessly from start to finish.

ALBAN W. HOOPES

Greenport, Long Island

Americans. By Webb Waldron. New York: The Graystone Press, 1941. Pp. 268. \$2.00.

The author of this book has already published several novels, and is a frequent contributor to national magazines. He has travelled extensively and is familiar with conditions in various parts of the globe.

What is America? What is an American? These questions probably have often been addressed at the writer by many individuals. In the words of the author, this work is "a guide-post to the American mind and heart." The author tells the stories of average personalities who typify the American way of life. At work and at play they reveal the spirit that is America. From Maine to California in the lives of these individuals the reader views the greatness of this nation.

The author's way of writing is interesting and clear. His research is to be commended. A book of this nature should be required outside reading for all students, as well as laymen.

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

De Witt Clinton Junior High School
Mount Vernon, N.Y.

TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER TEACHING AIDS

Modern Economics: Elements and Problems. By Albert L. Meyers. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1941. Pp. 734. \$4.00.

In order to produce this work, the author has drawn upon his two earlier texts, *Elements of Mod-*

ern Economics and Modern Economic Problems.

Not only are the usual divisions of the subject given attention, but also the timely topics of Social Security, International Economic Policy, Economic Planning in a Socialistic State, Economic Planning in a Totalitarian State, and Economic Planning in a Capitalistic Democracy receive adequate treatment in separate chapters. In five of the thirty-eight chapters, economic competition constitutes the theme.

As little is offered in the way of historical background, the author evidently either presupposes some knowledge of economic history on the part of the learner, or expects any deficiency with regard to such knowledge to be remedied by collateral readings.

The clear and concise presentation of the subject-matter will commend the volume to students and teachers alike. Through the medium of this presentation, Adam Smith's "dismal science" loses much of its dreariness.

Dr. Meyers' new text has so many excellent features that it is difficult to see how the book can fail to enjoy popularity.

J. F. SANTEE

Oregon College of Education
Monmouth, Ore.

Recent America: A History of the United States Since 1900. By Henry Bamford Parks. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1941. Pp. viii, 664, \$4.50.

This scholarly and well written work is divided into five major sections. The first of these analyzes the heritage of the nineteenth century, defines the status of the country as to labor, industry, agriculture, political system, etc. The second treats the administrations of Roosevelt, Taft and Wilson. The third presents the First World War. The fourth focuses attention upon the decade of the twenties, stressing economic trends, new industries, labor, agriculture, foreign trade and investments. The last section is concerned with the Depression, the New Deal, and the changing economic system of the thirties. Each of the forty-seven chapters is followed by a brief though well-selected bibliography.

Economic Analysis. By Kenneth E. Boulding. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1941. Pp. xviii, 809, \$4.25.

This volume is a contribution to economic analysis and provides a well written systematization of the principles toward which current thought is converging. At the same time it is designed for courses in college economics. The author writes in the preface: "It is hoped that the student who survives this book will at least have come to regard economic analysis as a discipline useful in the interpretation and solution of numerous problems of life and

thought, and will be able to add its methods to the cutting tools of his mind. Hence this is a work for the serious student and not for the course-taster."

Social Order. By Walter L. Willigan and John J. O'Connor. New York: Longmans, Green, and Company, 1941. Pp. 703. \$3.00.

In the thirteenth century Saint Thomas Aquinas faced the problem of synthesizing pagan science and Catholic dogma; today religious leaders face a similar problem in synthesizing Christian beliefs with the researches of social scientists often indifferent to religion. Appropriately Professors Willigan and O'Connor in writing their latest sociology text for Catholic colleges center it upon the Thomistic doctrine of order, i.e., "unity in well-arranged multiplicity." They base their book on a statement entitled "The Church and the Social Order," (February, 1940), by the Archbishops and Bishops of the Administrative Board of the National Catholic Welfare Conference (printed in appendix).

The organization of their book is suggestive. Part One, "Social Order in America," describes social order as the goal of democracy. Parts Two and Four relate the concept of social order to economics, sociology, and social pathology. Part Five, "Social Order: The Program," sketches a Christian functional society based on guilds, social order being the bulwark of democracy which is endangered alike by individualism and dictatorship. The authors roundly condemn those reactionaries who use the church to obstruct liberal, democratic developments.

Although recent statistics and subjects appear, it is the prominence of the religious theme which makes this book distinctive. Each chapter is prefaced by a short homily; there are many references to Aquinas and to other churchmen. Materialism is often attacked, at times rather cavalierly as in denouncing John Dewey's concept of constant, universal change as "superstition" (p. 44); naturalism in education is summarily called "materialistic, agnostic, and anti-Christian" (p. 391). About a third of the titles in chapter bibliographies appear under the rubric, "The Catholic Viewpoint."

The text is well supplied with tables and charts, adequate bibliographies, definitions, study topics, and projects.

It is indeed desirable that the healing and fruitful influence of Christianity and Judaism be applied to the solution of our socio-economic problems which are in large measure moral problems. Still should all this be narrowed by denominationalism? *Social Order*, however, is addressed to Catholic students; for them it will have a definite and useful place.

GARLAND DOWNUM

Mercer University
Macon, Georgia

Shadow Over Asia. By T. A. Bisson. Headline Books, No. 29, 1941. Foreign Policy Association, 22 East 38 Street, New York City. Pp. 96. 25 cents.

A description of the rise of imperial Japan by a well-known specialist in Far Eastern affairs. Helpfully illustrated by maps and charts. Nearly half of the study deals with Japan's geography, people, social institutions, and history. Then, following a brief sketch of Japan's government, the remaining chapters follow her foreign relations since 1890, stressing the last twenty years. Attention was paid to the pinch of economic necessity and the demands of business as well as to the policies of the army extremists. As is customary with the Headline Books, this one makes a worthwhile contribution to those seeking light on current international problems.

PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

Banking Facilities for Bankless Towns. By D. Southworth and John M. Chapman. New York: American Economists Council for the Study of Branch Banking, 1941. Pp. 75.

Like other publications of this group, this stresses the importance of branch banking to economic welfare.

Longman's Pamphlets on the British Commonwealth. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1941. 20 cents.

A new and expert study of the development of the British Commonwealth. Four issued to date.

Basic Social Education Series, By Richard W. Bardwell. Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson and Company, 1941.

Twenty Unitexts (28-32 cents) in this series have now been published, averaging about 44 pages each. This series enables the schools to build up their own curricula on the basis of their specific needs. Titles generally significant and attractive format.

Problems of American Democracy. Montclair, N.J.: New Jersey State Teachers College, 1941. Pp. 28. 50 cents.

A guide to audio-visual and teaching aids by the Visual Aids Service for high schools and junior colleges.

Ways of Dictatorship. By Chester S. Williams. Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson and Company, 1941. Pp. 96. Illustrated. 48 cents.

A stirring book, very readable. In a class in American government, it will serve to clarify the meaning of democracy through contrast and comparison.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Society and Medical Progress. By Bernhard J. Stern. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1941. Pp. xvii, 264. \$3.00.

A well-rounded view of medicine as a social science.

The Assembly of the League of Nations. By Margaret E. Burton. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1941. Pp. xi, 441. \$4.50.

An historical and analytical study of practical importance on the greatest experiment attempted in international organization.

American Isolation Reconsidered. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1941. Pp. vii, 208. 50 cents.

An excellent review and appraisal, with documents, presented primarily for teachers, but with merits for classroom use, by the Committee on Materials for Teachers in International Relations.

The Nature of Modern War. By Cyril Falls. New York: Oxford University Press, 1941. Pp. xvi, 101. \$1.25.

A valuable and sound background for the understanding of the strategy and tactics which win or lose battles today.

James Burd, Frontier Defender, 1726-1793. By Lily Lee Nixon. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1941. Pp. vii, 198. \$2.00.

One of a biographical series of important Pennsylvanians.

Let Us Now Praise Famous Men. By James Agee and Walker Evans. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1941. Pp. 470. Illustrated. \$3.50.

The normal subject is North American cotton tenantry as examined in the daily living of three representative white tenant families. A strange and violent book—disturbing in spite of or because of the five year delay in publication.

The United States and the Independence of Latin America, 1800-1830. By Arthur P. Whitaker. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1941. Pp. xx, 632. \$3.75.

An exhaustive treatise representing the Shaw Lectures on Diplomatic History, 1938.

European History since 1870. Second edition; *Europe since 1914.* Fifth edition. By F. Lee Bennis. New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, 1941. Pp. 1079, 1014. \$4.50 and \$3.75.

Useful revisions of two well-known texts.

I Am An American: By Famous Naturalized Americans. Edited by Robert S. Benjamin with an Introduction by Archibald MacLeish. New York: Alliance Book Corporation, 1941. Pp. xi, 176. \$1.50.

Famous citizens by adoption present their credos on life in the promised land in an inspiring manner. A by-product of the federal Immigration Service radio series.

Congressional Procedure. By Floyd M. Riddick. Boston: Chapman and Grimes, 1941. Pp. xvii, 387. \$4.00.

A comprehensive, basic volume for understanding a complicated business.

History of Latin America. By Hutton Webster, revised by Roland D. Hussey. Third edition. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1941. Pp. x, 326. Illustrated. \$1.64.

An elementary text with frequent revisions.

The Crisis of 1830-1842 in Canadian-American Relations. By Albert B. Corey. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1941. Pp. xvii, 203. \$2.50.

A scholarly story of annexationism, border warfare, secret societies, threats of war, the delimitation of disputed boundaries, etc. One of the series sponsored by the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace.

The Growth of European Civilization. By A. E. R. Boak, Albert Hyma, and Preston Slosson. New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, 1941. Second edition. Pp. xxv, 1126. Illustrated. \$4.50.

A new chapter added to cover events since 1938.

The Great Cultural Traditions: The Foundations of Civilization. Vol. I, *The Great Cities*, Vol. II, *The Classical Empires.* By Ralph Turner. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1941. Pp. 1442. Illustrated. \$4.00 each.

An important and excellent two-volume text with careful attention to synthesis and the interplay of geographical, technological, social, etc. developments. Use has been made of the techniques and concepts of the social studies. Highly recommended.

Railroad Competition and the Oil Trade, 1855-1873. By Rolland H. Maybee. Mount Pleasant, Michigan: The Extension Press, 1940. Pp. x, 451.

A history of competition among the Atlantic truck lines before the Standard Oil Company came into national prominence.

The Education of Negroes in New Jersey. By Marion

M. T. Wright. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. Pp. viii, 227. \$2.35.

A study provoked by the fact that in New Jersey almost every conceivable practice governing the education of Negro children could be found. History from the beginning up to 1900.

How to Locate Educational Information and Data: A Text and Reference Book. By Carter Alexander. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. Second edition. Pp. xiv, 439. \$4.00.

Greatly revised and improved. *Alexander Library Experiences* (\$1.50) accompanies this edition and an *Instructor's Manual* is provided.

American Economic Problems. By S. Howard Patterson, A. W. S. Little and H. R. Burch. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941. Pp. viii, 632. \$1.96.

A useful and well written text.

Arkansas: A Guide to the State. New York: Hastings House, 1941. Pp. xxvii, 447. Illustrated. \$2.50.

One of the excellent American Guide Series compiled by Writers' Projects of the WPA Broad scope.

Civics in American Life. By James B. Edmonson and Arthur Dondineau. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941. Pp. xiii, 702. Illustrated. \$1.72.

Seven units with ample study helps. Primarily concerned with meaning of American democracy, major problems and services of our government, and obligations of the citizen. Informal, conversational style.

Working for Democracy. By Lyman Bryson and Kerry Smith. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941. Pp. xvii, 425. Illustrated. \$1.32.

Presents actual experiences in narrative style as experiments in democratic living. Attractive, final book of the *Democracy Series*.

The Making of a Democracy. By Gertrude Hartman. New York: The John Day Company, 1941. Revised edition. Pp. 302. Illustrated. \$1.96.

For junior high schools. Combines the Old and New World story. A teachers' guide is also available. The new chapter is on dictatorship.

Conservation of the Nation's Resources. By Harry E. Flynn and Floyd E. Perkins. New York: The Macmillan Company. Pp. x, 385. Illustrated. \$1.60.

An elementary text on both human and natural resources.

Youth Thinks it Through. Edited by Francis L. Bacon and others. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1941. Pp. x, 416.

Selected passages for collateral reading.

Introduction to Responsible Citizenship. Edited by William E. Mosher. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1941. Pp. viii, 887. \$3.25.

A book that has developed out of work at the Maxwell School of Citizenship and Public Affairs since 1924 at Syracuse University.

Time on their Hands; a Report on Leisure, Recreation and Young People. By C. Gilbert Wrenn and D. L. Harvey. Washington: American Council on Education, 1941. Pp. xxi, 266. Illustrated. \$2.00.

A penetrating inquiry.

Everyday Occupations. By Mildred A. Davey and others. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1941. Pp. xii, 372. Illustrated. \$1.68.

A very comprehensive, practical text for secondary schools, planned to meet the interests of both low- and high-ability groups.

They Dreamed and Dared: America's History in Stamps and Stories. By Lillian E. Barclay. Austin, Texas: The Steck Company, 1941. Pp. ix, 612. Illustrated. \$2.50.

The story of events commemorated by seventy five stamp issues, designed as supplementary reading for junior high schools—and young philatelists.

Methods of Lesson Observing by Preservice Student-Teachers. By R. H. Chatterton. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. Pp. vii, 137. \$1.85.

A comparative study of observational methods, with experiments.

How to Read a Newspaper. By Edgar Dale. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1941. Pp. 192. Illustrated. \$1.40.

The drama of the newspaper and how to improve reading technics for the high school student. Adults can also benefit.

Democracy's High School. By Agnes De Lima. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. Pp. 90. Illustrated 90 cents.

The story of living and learning in the Lincoln School of Teachers College.

What Our Schools are Teaching. By Herbert Bruner and others. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. Pp. xii, 225. \$3.00.

A analysis of the content of selected courses of study with special reference to science, social studies, and industrial arts.

The Rubber Industry. By Josephine Perry. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1941. Pp. 96. Illustrated. \$1.50.

An interesting description in the America at Work Series for children.

Boy of Babylon. By Frances K. Gere. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1941. Pp. ix, 118. Illustrated. \$2.00.

Children's story with adventure and authentic material interwoven. In the reign of Hammurabi.

Juan: Son of the Fisherman. By Isabel de Palencia. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1941. Pp. v, 207. Illustrated. \$1.75.

About a young boy of modern Spain written by the first woman diplomat to represent Spain.

Whampoa. By Hawthorne Daniel. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1941. Pp. 273. Illustrated. \$2.00.

A story of China in the days of the clipper ships. Moderately exciting.

Angelique. By Gertrude Crownfield. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1941. Pp. 274. Illustrated. \$2.00.

A well-known children's writer uses the migration of the French Acadians to Maryland as background.

Sixpence for Luck. By Louise Hall Thorp. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1941. Pp. 284. Illustrated. \$2.00.

An adventure story based on lost treasures in old New London.

Indoctrination for American Democracy. By Benjamin F. Pittenger. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941. Pp. 110. \$1.25.

Arguments for indoctrination interpreted as the positive teaching of democratic principles.

The Meaning of Democracy. By William F. Russell and Thomas H. Briggs. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941. Pp. xiii, 413. \$1.48.

A basal text in education for democracy for high schools. Designed to provide American youth with an interpretation of democracy.

George Washington's World. By Genevieve Foster. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1941. Pp. x, 348. Illustrated. \$2.75.

Outstanding events of world significance during Washington's lifetime. Well illustrated.

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